

TRAVELS,
THROUGH THE
BALEARIC AND PITHIUSIAN
ISLANDS,

PERFORMED BETWEEN THE YEARS 1801 AND 1806.

BY A. G. DE ST. SAUVEUR, JUN.
CONSUL OF FRANCE AT THE BALEARIC ISLES, AUTHOR
OF PICTURESQUE TRAVELS THROUGH THE
VENETIAN ISLES, &c. &c.

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ADVERTISEMENT.

IT has been justly remarked that Modern Travellers are addicted to describing such countries as have been newly discovered, while they neglect those which gave them birth. When America was discovered, and afterwards the islands in the Pacific Ocean, all travellers were indifferent to every other part of the world.

To give a complete description of an extensive country is an undertaking beyond the competency of one individual; for besides the variety of knowledge which he ought to possess, he should also have the means of travelling, of residing for a length of time in particular places, and rewarding the natives, whose services he will require on various occasions.

Convinced of this evident principle, that the knowledge of the geography of a kingdom can only be acquired by general encouragement and liberal assistance, Philip II, of Spain, transmitted in 1575, orders and instructions to all the prelates and governors of the different provinces in his kingdom, directing them to draw up memoranda of every thing worthy of notice, in their respective districts. This task, however, was only executed in part, as its completion was prevented by political events.

The Balearic and Pithiusian islands, therefore like most of the other provinces of Spain, had their historians and local geographers; but the writers being natives of the parts which they have described, so far from giving true accounts, have embellished them with all those wonderful additions which the imagination and partiality engender.

With respect to the Pithiusian isles, there is no work extant in which they are described with interest; their history being founded entirely upon what has been written relative to the Balearics. In my Account, however, I have omitted no opportunity to gain the most accurate information as to their *present* state; and the following work may therefore be considered as the result of all the materials I have been able to collect, during a research of six years in the respective places. 'Indeed, I may venture to offer it as the most exact and ample description which can be procured of the coasts, and the interior of the islands in question; and I have, in particular, inserted every thing that relates to the character, manners, customs, industry, commerce, costume, and language of the inhabitants.

I have also devoted a chapter to the antiquities which have been found, or still exist on the different islands; and I conclude the whole with an historical sketch. The Balearics have made only a secondary figure in the events which compose the history of the others; nevertheless, the facts which I have collected, are by no means unworthy of attention.

T.R A V E L S

THROUGH THE

BALEARIC AND PITHIUSIAN ISLANDS.

CHAP. I.

SITUATION OF THE BALEARIC AND PITHIUSIAN ISLANDS
— ORIGIN OF THEIR NAMES — EXTENT — FIGURE —
COASTS, AND ANCHORAGE OF THE ISLANDS OF MA-
JORCA AND CABRERIA—DESCRIPTION OF THE ISLAND
OF MAJORCA.

UNDER the name of the *Balcares*, or *Baleariæ* Isles, are comprised the isles of Majorca, Minorca, and Cabreria; they are situated in that part of the Mediterranean formerly called the Iberian sea, because it washed the shores of Spain, the ancient Iberia, and afterwards Balearic, from the names of these two islands. In the time of the Greeks, they were called the *Gymnesias*: the name of the *Balcares* was given them by the Romans. According to the best writers of antiquity, Polybius, Strabo, and Pliny, these two denominations had their origin from the particular manners of the inhabitants of these islands in times past. The name *Gymnesias* expresses the custom of the first inhabitants of going naked; and that of *Balcares* is derived from their singular skill in the use of the sling. They are now known by the names of Majorca and Minorca.

Cabreria is a small island dependant on, and very near to Majorca: it has its name from the custom of the Majorcans keeping their flocks of goats to pasture at this place.

By the name of *Pithuses* are distinguished the three islands of Ilica, Formentera, and Conejera, situated in that part of the Mediterranean called the Gulf of Valencia. They were known to the Greeks and Romans by this denomination; which by some is thought to be derived from the great number of pine trees with which they abound; and by others, from a kind of pottery formerly made by the inhabitants, which was one of the chief articles of commerce with strangers. The vases of

this pottery were said to have the extraordinary virtue of not receiving, or imbibing any kind of poison. Majorca, the most considerable of the Balears, describes a square, the projecting points of which are the capes Pera, to the east; Grosses, to the west; Fromentor, to the north; and the Salines, or salt-pits, to the south. The circumference is about 143 miles, 54 east and west in length, and 42 north and south in breadth. It is 28 miles from the roadstead of Palma to the Bay of Alcudia.

The island of Majorca is distant 26 miles W. S. W. from the nearest point of land of Minorca, 46 E. N. E. from Ivica, 90 S. S. E. from Barcelona; 135 N. N. W. from the Cape Tenis, in Africa. The latitude of this island is $39^{\circ} 57' 15''$; the longitude $9^{\circ} 40'$ E. from the Royal Marine Observatory at Cadiz.

On approaching the shore, and keeping to the east of the isle of Majorca, we soon discover Cape Blanc: going coast-ways to the South we see that of the Salines, where there is good anchorage, sheltered from the winds, which blow from the land. Continuing the same course, we find a small road, called Cale-Figuieres; it can only receive vessels of small burthen. Pursuing our course along the coast, we come to the port Pera; it is half a mile wide at the mouth, and runs about two miles into the land. A few galleys, or at the most, six or seven ships, that draw but little water, can anchor here in good ground.

We next come to another small harbour, called Colomb, where there is anchorage only for small craft; it runs in shore near a mile and a half. The village is about two miles from the port.

Between the cape of the Salines and the isle of Cabreria there are many shoals, and several little islands. Fishermen generally resort here, as there is plenty of fish.

Cape Pera is the last of the island of Majorca: to the east, going thence north, we find the bay of Alcudia, where the anchorage is sheltered by Cape Ferrouil. W. N. W. of the bay, about two miles distant, is the town of Alcudia.

Continuing a course to the N. after doubling the cape of Alcudia, we make the port of Polenza, which was called by the ancients *Portus Minor*, to distinguish it from that of Alcudia, which they called *Portus Major*. There is good anchorage in this port for ships of almost any burthen, where they are sheltered from every wind, and protected by a tower tolerably well fortified. This tower is situated half way up the harbour, where there are also several windmills. There is plenty of fresh water to the South of the tower.

The village of Pollenza is two miles from the sea shore, and

is situated behind a mountain. Pollenza and Alcudia are the two best anchorages of the island of Majorca. At the entrance of the roadstead of Pollenza, there is, on the right, a little island near the land; at the mouth, the soundings are from 27, 23, 20, and 17 fathoms; diminishing gradually. At the time of the expedition against Mahon, under the command of the Maréchal de Richelieu, the squadron and the Spanish convoy were at anchor in the bay of Alcudia, at the same time that the port of Pollenza was occupied by the English. To the west of Pollenza is the coast of Soller, which is dangerous, as it consists of lofty barren mountains, and has no good anchorage; it is necessary to go large from the land in this place, as a shoal runs out ten miles distant, where the soundings are ten fathoms; the sea breaking over it is very dangerous, and elsewhere denotes other shallows which are not known; therefore great care is necessary, in bad weather, to go very large from this dangerous shore, which affords no other shelter than the little port of Soller; only fit for small trading vessels which draw but little water. The mouth of this harbour is narrow, and difficult to enter. A battery of four pieces of cannon defends the entrance. It is here that the small craft of the island take in their cargoes of oranges for France, and some few for Spain.

The isle of the Dragonieres is situated in the latitude $39^{\circ} 40'$. It has two towers for its defence, where the signals to the ships are displayed. There is a passage to Friou, between the Dragonieres and the island of Majorca; but it requires great caution in the navigation, as there are, near the middle, rocks which are almost level with the water, and some of which appear above it. Towards the South is a small port, called Andraig; the entrance is so narrow that it is hazardous for ships to go in. The anchorage is in seven and eight fathoms, and a muddy bottom.

Pursuing the same route, you make the Cape Fromentor, where begins the road of Majorca to the westward. Having doubled the Cape, you enter the roadstead: it is extensive, and there is good anchorage; but open to the south-west, which occasions a great deal of sea. The Point of Saint Charles is seen protected by a castle of the same name, which is square, and was built by the Emperor Charles the Fifth. The Port aux Pins is an harbour where vessels of a certain burthen, and even frigates are moored by cables made fast on shore. The ships are protected from every wind, and the entrance was formerly shut by means of a chain. This port can only contain a small number of vessels; the mouth is defended by a battery situated on the point next the town, upon which, in

front, is the light-house, which serves to direct mariners in the night, and to make signals to the ships observed in the offing.

About half way from Port aux Pins to the town, is situated the castle of Belver, on a hill. It was built by King Don Jayme II. It is of an oval form, and rather large. On the side next the town is first seen a large round tower, which, at a distance, appears detached from the castle: state prisoners are confined here. This fort, guarded by about fifty infantry, is under the command of a lieutenant colonel, retired from active service.

A little distance from Belver, on the brow of another hill, which descends to the sea, is built the Lazaretto. It was constructed in 1656, and is divided into several wards, where they air and purify the merchandize. Two of these compartments, situated at the bottom of the hill, on the sea shore, are absolutely of no use in rainy seasons; the flowing of the water inundates them entirely. The passengers have no other lodging than some little rooms in the upper part of the building. This lazaretto, by the few conveniences, or rather by the many inconveniences found there, is not very well suited for the purpose of its establishment. Its vicinity to the town, and to a much frequented road, would be dangerous in case the persons or effects being kept there, should be infected with the plague. These observations gave birth to the design of building a new pest-house on the island of Cabreria; the situation could not be better; but the distance, and the passage by sea, present risks and expences too burthensome to commerce; the project was therefore given up, and the interest of the merchant prevailed against the consideration of the public health.

The port of Palma is small, and can only admit vessels which draw but little water; they moor in the north part, at the mole.

The centre of the island of Cabreria is at the distance of ten miles N. E. & N. from the cape of Salines of Majorca; its latitude is $39^{\circ} 7' 30''$, and the longitude $9^{\circ} 16' 20''$ E. from the Observatory of Cadiz. This island is of some elevation, and is three miles in length S. W. and N. E. and two miles and three quarters E. and W. in breadth; the shore is clean, and the bottom is, generally speaking, sea-weed. Not far from the coast there are some small islands, which are seen at the same time with Cabreria.

Almost in the middle of that side of the island which looks to the south, there are four small islands, which they call *Patellons*. The two highest are very near, and almost touch Cabreria, and the two others are farther from the first,

about a cable's length and a half to the south. The coast of these islands is clean, and vessels of any burthen may pass through the straight they form.

At the south-east of Cabreria is another small island called Imperial, higher than the others, but situated so near the coast, that it is with difficulty even boats can pass.

About one third of a mile to the north of Cape Ventosa, which is the farthest N. E. from Cabreria, is the island Redonda, larger than the Imperial. Vessels of all descriptions can pass between Redonda and Ventosa; the depth is ten or twelve fathoms.

In the passage from Isle Imperial to Cape Ventosa, is seen Bleda, a little low island, almost touching the other shore. Between Bleda and Cape Ventosa, the coast forms a large creek, in which, in the northern part, is a road called Olla, and to the south another called Bori: they only serve for the fishing-boats.

To the N. 35° W. of Cape Ventosa, distant about a mile, and two miles and one third to the N. $67^{\circ} \frac{1}{2}$ E. of Cape Levêchè, is the S. W. extremity of the island of Conejera, the highest and most considerable of all those in the neighbourhood of Cabreria.

Conejera is about a mile in length from N. N. E. to S. S. W. There is a passage through the straight formed by Cabreria and the Isle Redonda. The soundings are ten and twelve fathoms.

At the N. N. E. extremity of Conejera there are four little islands close together; three are called the Planes, and the fourth Furadada, which is the highest. The straight which these islands form is deep, but so narrow, that nothing but boats can pass through.

The island Furadada, and the Cape Salines of Majorca, are five miles and a half distant from each other, N. E. 3° N. and S. W. 3° S. In the middle of this passage the soundings are 20 and 25 fathoms; the depth decreases near the two shores to 10 fathoms.

In these straights we frequently meet strong currents, which follow the direction of the winds that prevail.

The port of Cabreria is a little distant to the S. S. E. of Cape Levêchè. This cape is a land-mark. There is seen, at the entrance of the port, a cavern, called Obispo, which ~~give~~ leave to the starboard; and, to larboard, the Point of Creveta, which is the easternmost, and forms the port. Within this point is observed the castle of Cabreria, situated on a mountain. The entrance of the port is about a cable's length in breadth; and

there are every where from 20 to 25 fathoms; so that the largest ships may enter.

Having doubled the point of Creveta, several fishermen's huts appear; opposite to which there is anchorage in eight and ten fathoms. Vessels may be moored on the eastern side, and ride safely with two anchors. The port is large, and the shores which inclose it are level. The north wind blows into the harbour.

Having the wind to the north-west, blowing fresh, to go into the port of Cabreria, care must be taken to keep the Cape Levêchè to the N. W. since, from that Cape to the anchorage, the squalls from the mountains are sometimes so strong, that they carry away the masts of a vessel. The same attention must be paid with the wind at east.

At a little distance, on the east of the point Creveta, there is a large creek, called the road of Gandas: the bottom is good, but this road is open to the north and north-east. It often happens that, owing to voyagers not having a perfect knowledge of the coast, they confound this creek with Port Cabreria. To avoid the mistake the Cape Levêchè must be made, and then the coast pursued to the anchorage.

At a mile and three quarters to the S. 15° W. of the Cape Levêchè, and that of Picamoscas and near to the middle of the coast of that Cape, there is a little creek called Galcota. Between the Cape Picamoscas and that of Ausiola, which is the most southern of the Island, is another creek which has an island at its entrance. These two creeks are only frequented by fishermen, who come hither to fish when the wind is at east.

The island of Cabreria is nearly uncultivated. Some islanders with the garrison of the castle, which is from ten to twelve men in time of peace, and from forty to fifty in time of war, compose the whole population. The Majorcans keep at pasture in Cabreria flocks of goats. This island supplies a small quantity of fire wood.

THE ISLAND OF MAJORCA.

The island of Majorca is very hilly, particularly in that part which is opposite to Catalonia. The N. E. part is separated from the S. W. by a chain of lofty mountains. Its population is divided into fifty-two inhabited places, two cities, thirty villages, and the rest small hamlets; the quality of the soil is excellent, and its productions with the exception of corn, sufficient for the consumption of the islanders.

Leaving Palma, the capital of the isle, and going to the E. keeping along the sea coast, the first village of any note that we come to is Lluch the greater, situated on a pleasant plain, famous for the battle in which king Don Jayme the third

lost his life and crown. This village was built by king Don Jayme the second in the year 1300 ; the number of its inhabitants amounts to near 3500.

Corn and figs are the principal productions of this canton ; it also maintains a considerable number of cattle. The streets and houses of Lluç the greater, are tolerably regular.

The principal church is that belonging to the Convent of Saint Francis ; the architecture is simple, and in other respects it has nothing remarkable. Near this village is a mountain called La Randa. On the summit is a college with a chapel, where about fifty young children are instructed in the first rudiments of learning, at the expence of the university of Palma. From the top of La Randa, is beheld the most delightful prospect ; on one side is a grand view of the sea, and on the other the country, which presents a cheerful landscape. The mountain La Randa has obtained a celebrity from the retreat of Raymond-Lulle, chief of the sect of the Lullists, who was as famous for his enthusiasms, and the delirium and extravagance of his propositions, as illustrious for his virtues. This philosopher, surnamed the illuminated doctor, was born in the isle of Majorca, in 1236 ; he applied with indefatigable perseverance to the study of the philosophy of the Arabians, to chemistry, physic, and theology, and at length went to preach the gospel in Africa, and was stoned to death in Mauritania, on the 20th of March, 1315. He is esteemed a martyr among the people at Majorca, where his body was conveyed, and deposited. His absurd doctrines have still a number of followers in the university of Palma.

About a league and a half from this city is a pond called le Prat : the unwholesome exhalations of this collection of stagnant water, are very prejudicial to the cultivators of the lands in the vicinity. This pond might be easily drained by conducting the waters to the sea, which is very nigh.

Two leagues to the S. E. is the village of Campos ; it is not so considerable as Lluç the greater ; it was also founded in the thirteenth century. The lands are divided into corn fields and meadows. The wealth of the inhabitants, the number of whom is at most four or five thousand, consists chiefly of corn and cattle. Campos is not far from the royal salt pits, which are situated on the sea shore. They do not obtain from these pits the quantity, which a more extensive operation would certainly procure.

A league to the N. of Campos there is a mineral spring, called Saint John's Fountain, which is a specific for the itch and other cutaneous distempers. Probably virtues of greater extent

might be discovered, if these waters were analysed. M. Bleau in his "*Atlas général*," speaks highly of this spring.

Continuing in the road to the N. we come to a large plain well cultivated, and very fertile in corn, and which might with propriety be called the granary of the island of Majorca. This extent of land is occupied by the villages of Porreras, Algaida, Montuiri, Villa-Franca, San Juan, and Petra. The population in this canton may be about 11 or 12000 souls.

The inhabitants obtain from hence wines, brandies and olive oil for their consumption, but corn is their chief wealth. The gardens produce abundance of roots and culinary vegetables of every kind. They gather yearly a large quantity of figs, which they dry. Their flocks are sufficient for the purposes of manuring the land as well as for the consumption of the country.

At *Petra* is a paper-mill, but the manufacture is of a very ordinary quality.

Continuing our way along the sea-shore a little more to the E. of the Cape des Salines; (Salt Pits), we come to the village Santagni; it is well built with stone of an excellent quality, which is found in the neighbourhood. Santagni was often forsaken by its inhabitants, at the times when the Barbary corsairs made incursions into the interior of the lands. The parish church is remarkable for its size, but the architecture is heavy and in bad style. The population of Santagni amounts to 5000 souls. The lands in this part of the island are very fertile, and produce much wheat and barley. In the vicinity of Santagni, are a great number of tombs, which are said to be of the times, when the Romans were in possession of Majorca. I wished to be convinced of the truth of this assertion, but could not find any inscription to remove my doubts on the subject. Tradition alone says that these sepulchres belonged to the Romans.

To the north of Santagni, about three leagues distant, is the village *Felanix*, which is one of the largest and best built in the island; it contains 5 or 6000 inhabitants; they grow plenty of corn and have a sufficient number of cattle; but their chief wealth is derived from their brandies. Felanix is the canton which furnishes the most in quantity, and the best in quality of this liquor; the exportation of which is one of the most advantageous branches of commerce in Majorca. The monks of St. Augustine have here a handsome convent. Half a league from this village there is a small hill, on the top of which is a chapel where the islanders pay their devotions to an image of Christ, which has given the name of San-Salvador to this mountain; near the chapel is a kind of inn, for the accommodation of the pilgrims, whose devotion leads them to the place. There is a convenient

ascent cut in the rock to the summit of the hill. The Majorcans preserve with particular care those small chapels, which are built on the summit of almost every mountain in the island.

Four leagues N. & N. E. from Felanix is Manacor, a village situated in a fertile plain; most part of the land belongs to the noblesse of Majorca, who here pass the summer. Manacor is one of the largest villages in the island; the population is estimated at the number of 7000; the inhabitants are rich in corn, wines, vegetables, figs, and herds of cattle. The monks of St. Dominic have a small convent at Manacor. They shew in the parish church an old picture of the crucifixion, and praise highly the painting. I could not judge of its merits, because the chapel is very dark. I remarked the same want of light in almost all the churches of Majorca.

To the E. is the little village Sanservera; it is very near the sea.

To the north of Sanservera, is Arta, which is built on a rough and hilly situation. This village is one of the largest and handsomest of the island; contains about 8000 people; the inhabitants keep numerous flocks and herds of cattle; the chief produce is oil and vegetables; they also grow cotton, which they have in perfection. This canton abounds with game of every kind. In the environs of Arta are some grottos and caverns, which might agreeably employ the naturalist in philosophical researches.

Arta is surrounded by country houses, where the nobles of the island pass the summer. The stranger is received with a frankness and good nature, rare even among those people, who boast most of their hospitality, and who fancy they possess a superior degree of civilization. There is a mountain that commands a prospect of the whole village, and from which may be seen the sea, in five different directions: on the top of this mountain is a small hermitage, taken care of by a devout old woman; she shewed us an antique statue of the Holy Virgin, of which she related some prodigious miracles; the walls bore many testimonies of its efficacy, and of the gratitude of the islanders, who had been restored to health by their faith in the powers of this image. I went over the ruins of an old castle, which formerly belonged to the Moors; a part of which had served to form the hermitage I had just quitted. There only remained a walled enclosure, and some subterraneous apartments, the entrances of which are choked up with heaps of stones. From thence I went to a convent of Franciscan monks. I was attended by one of them, who, like the old woman at the hermitage, related miracles performed by every statue of a saint, with which the church was

ornamented. The library was the last thing he shewed, and at my request, and on this occasion he told truth, for he assured me that "I should find nothing curious;" in fact there was only a heap of old Spanish books, bound in parchment. I opened several of them; they were on theological subjects. Just as I was leaving this library, my conductor stopped me, and made me observe about half a dozen helmets and some armour, which were placed on the upper shelves; the distance and the darkness of the place, prevented me from forming a judgment of them; and desirous to make some interesting discovery, I entertained hopes that they might be remains of armour, which formerly had belonged to the ancestors of the Majorcans. "The monk corrected my error, by telling me that what I had observed with so much attention was the work of his own hands, and made use of to dress some children on the days of procession. These helmets, bucklers, and cuirasses, in fact were nothing but paste-board covered with paper, which by dust and time had acquired the appearance of age, that caused my mistake.

A short distance to the east of Arta, is the castle of Pera, built on the top of a small mountain, about the third of a league from Cape Pera; it is only an enclosure of walls with battlements, furnished with three or four pieces of artillery. This miserable castle overlooks some poor habitations built on the declivity of the mountain.

Leaving the mountainous lands of Arta we reach a large plain, which extends as far as the shore of the bay of Alendia: in this plain, and a little distance from the sea, are the villages Saint-Marguerite, Muro, Peubla, and Campanet; the number of people inhabiting this canton, is about 10,000; corn, honey, hemp, oil, carroubs, with the flocks and herds of large and small cattle, compose the wealth of the inhabitants. The gardens also produce great quantities of fruits and vegetables. The melons and citrons of Peubla, are remarkable for their size and quality. In the neighbourhood of Muro, is a quarry of excellent stones for building; as there is also in the environs of Felanix. Near St. Marguerite are found a number of tombs, which are said to be as ancient as the time of the Romans.

I remarked a particular taste in the construction of the public edifices and churches of these villages; the largest and finest of which is that of Peubla.

A little to the S. W. of Campanet, is Selva Inca, Beninsalem, and Sansellas; these villages are in the most fertile part of the island. The inhabitants amount to about 11,000 persons; they are in general in good circumstances; they have a considerable quantity of corn, wine, oil, carroubs, almonds, and fruits of every

kind, with some silk : they keep flocks and herds of cattle, which are sufficient for their consumption, and the labours of husbandry.

The situation of Selva is very pleasant, surrounded by hills covered with trees ; this village presents a perspective as cheerful as varied : water is found in abundance, and contributes much to the fertility of the country.

They assert that Inca was founded in the time of the Romans ; and ruins are found in the vicinity, which leave no doubt of its antiquity.

Sansellas is also said to be one of the parts of the island which was first inhabited : the situation of this village is not less picturesque than that of Selva.

The canton of Beniusalem is one of the richest of the island in vines ; the quality of which is in much esteem. The village is also well built and handsome ; the houses are convenient, and kept with great neatness. In the neighbourhood of Beniusalem there is a quarry of red marble, with which the inhabitants have beautified their church. This edifice is one of the finest in the island.

It is but a short distance from Sansellas to Sineu : this village existed in the time of the Romans. Under the kings of Majorca, it was one of the most flourishing in the island. These princes had at this place a castle, where they resided several months in the year. The population of Sineu does not exceed 4000 persons ; the produce consists of corn, wine, and vegetables ; the inhabitants have also some flocks, but they are not very numerous.

Sainte-Marie is a small village not far from Sineu ; it has but 2000 inhabitants. The lands produce a small quantity of corn, fruit, almonds, and wine ; but the oils are the principal article.

In the road to Alcudia, from St. Marie, we pass very near a large morass, called the Abufera, situated near the sea shore. This pond, the property of a noble of Palma, is the chief wealth of the canton : it abounds with aquatic fowl, and in its waters they catch a considerable quantity of fish, particularly eels, of an enormous size. Unfortunately these advantages do not make amends for the unwholesome exhalations which infect the air, and occasion distempers very difficult to cure.

This part of the island is deserted, and great part of the land uncultivated. The Abufera is thought to be the chief cause of the depopulation of the town of Alcudia, which is in its vicinity. I do not think the draining of this pond would be attended with any great difficulty, or require any very considerable expenditure : the waters might easily be made to pass into the sea ; and, once dried up, this place might be used for

the purposes of agriculture, and its extent is large enough to compensate by its produce the loss of the fishery. At any rate, it would be very easy to lessen the malignity of the waters of this morass, by clearing away the filth. The weeds, which stagnate, added to the bad quality of the mud and slime, occasion unwholesome qualities.

At the distance of something more than two miles from the Abusera, on the side of a hill, is the town of Alcudia, between two large bays, which can receive ships of any burthen. Alcudia is said to be the part of the island which was first inhabited: the situation of this town, at two miles from the sea, may be considered as a proof of this assertion. In those early ages, the art of fortification was but little known; they only had an enclosure of walls, flanked with a few towers. Their chief strength was in the situation; thus they preferred mountainous places, and such as were difficult of access from the sea; they therefore settled some distance from the shore. These precautions were sufficient protection from a *coup-de-main*. Alcudia has always acted a principal part in the events which compose the history of Majorca. This city has for a long time disputed with Palma the title of the capital of the island. Alcudia was in the reign of Jayme the Second, in 1300, in a very flourishing state: in 1523, the emperor Charles the Fifth rewarded its citizens for their zeal by the title of *Most Faithful*. Alcudia at present appears to be only a poor place, with most of the houses falling into ruins. The ancient wall yet remains, but would not be any defence. This city is the residence of a invalid colonel, who has the government of it; the garrison consists of about thirty foot-soldiers; a piquet of cavalry does the ordinary duty; conveys the reports to the captain general, and the orders he sends in answer.

There is not any spring of water in the neighbourhood of Alcudia; and the inhabitants, whose number is now reduced to about 800, are supplied only from cisterns. The culture of the lands is in a languishing state, and the produce is confined to a little corn, with some fruits and vegetables. The sheep produce a very fine wool.

There is, on the declivity of a small hill, towards the isthmus which divides the two bays, a chapel dedicated to Our Lady of the Victory. Near this place, from the top of a steep rock, one may see the prospect of all the eastern coast of the island of Minorca, and most part of Majorca; on this rock is a signal tower. A little lower, and almost on the sea shore, is another pointed rock; on the summit is a piece of artillery: this rock is of a curious shape: it is called *la Roxa*.

Leaving this territory, which is equally barren and unwholesome, and going to the W. N. W. we are made amends by the sight of the village Pollenza : it is situated a short league from the sea, in a plain sheltered to the north by lofty hills ; the soil is fruitful and well watered. The foundation of Pollenza is dated as far back as the time of the Romans : this village, which is the largest and one of the handsomest in the island, contains near 6000 inhabitants. It produces chiefly oils and wool : the wine of Pollenza, called Montona, is in great esteem. The houses, though not grand, have every requisite convenience, and denote the opulence of the people who inhabit them. The parish church is built in a good style of architecture, although simple. The Dominicans have here a tolerably handsome convent. The most remarkable edifice is the church, which was built by the Jesuits two years before their expulsion ; it is thought to be one of the handsomest in the island ; the convent has not been finished. It would make a college for the education of youth. There is also at Pollenza, a military hospital for the troops which are stationed in this part of the island. Near the village is a little solitary eminence, on the top of which is a chapel dedicated to the Holy Virgin ; there was also a convent of nuns, which has been demolished. In the southern part are the ruins of an old castle, called the Castle of Pollenza. If curiosity lead any stranger thither, he must expect to endure the tedious recital of the prodigies of valour performed by the Majorcans in defending this fort against the Moors.

Following the chain of mountains which protects the island from the winds of the north, we descend into a valley where there is a large collegiate church, called *Lluch*. Pope Alexander granted to its chapter the title of Canons of St. Peter. The ecclesiastics, and the other inhabitants of this collegiate, are reckoned at about 400 persons. Its wealth consists of oils and flocks. The hills which surround the valley are covered with trees, and have many good springs of water. The church, consecrated to *Notre-Dame de Lluch*, is very handsome. I observed some very beautiful marble pillars, which support the roof ; the interior is lined with black marble, and adorned with ornaments of jasper, which the island produces. There is at *Lluch* an image of the Holy Virgin, which is held in great veneration, and which they assure us was found in 1238, on the spot where the church is built. This image, like many others, has the gift of working miracles. It attracts many devotees, who never fail to bring the customary offerings.

Passing over the mountains which surround the valley of *Notre-Dame de Lluch*, and going to the south, we see the
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villages Alaro and Saint-Martial; but they contain nothing that can interest the curiosity of the traveller. The population of Alaro may be about 2400 persons; its produce consists of oil, caroubs, and silk, and it maintains some flocks of small cattle: there are here several springs, which serve to put in motion the mills adjacent. Saint-Martial is only a hamlet, inhabited by about 500 people; the produce is various, and consists of oil, grain, almonds, wine, and figs; they have also some flocks and herds, and there is a manufactory of earthen ware.

To the north of Saint-Martial is Bugnola, a village founded as far back as the epoch of the conquest of the island by king Jayme the First: it may contain about 2600 persons. A few flocks of sheep, caroubs, but above all the oil, compose the riches of this place; there is also some wood proper for building.

When travellers arrive as far as the foot of the mountains of Eufabia, it is customary to stop at a house, which, according to the tradition of the country, stands on the spot where was formerly a pleasure seat that belonged to the Moorish kings. The gardener is very attentive to travellers, shewing them every thing worthy observation, particularly the different fountains which play in various fanciful representations. The Majoreaus are fond of these bagatelles. What surprised me most, is the want of taste of the proprietor of this spot, which by its situation, and the springs of water which abound there, might be easily made a most delightful residence.

We have to pass over some very lofty mountains in our way from Eufabia to Soler; we go this road with mules; but the road is wide, and the declivity not being very steep, might be easily made proper for carriages. This short road is exceedingly delightful; the various prospects seen from the mountains charm the eye in every direction. On our descent we enter the valley of Soler. It is three leagues and a half in circumference, and forms a kind of basin, surrounded by mountains, which are covered with clumps of olive trees.

The whole plain is planted with orange and lemon trees, and watered by numerous rivulets, which unite together in one stream near the village, which it crosses, and runs into the sea at the port of Palm. The valley of Soler, seen from the top of the mountains, presents the spectacle of a forest of trees always green. The fecundity of the soil in this part of the island, is astonishing; the smallest garden produces an abundance that is almost incredible. The inhabitants amount to about 5000 in number; their wealth consists of oil, caroubs, and silk; but above all, a prodigious quantity of oranges and lemons of a very

superior quality: these last are the most considerable articles of the commerce of the Majorcans with Languedoc and Roussillon, which now make the departments of Herault and the eastern Pyrenees. The village of Soler is well built, and is one of the handsomest in the island; but, nevertheless, it has nothing particularly worthy of attention. The first subject with which the Majorcans entertain a stranger on his arrival, is the valley of Soler; of which they speak with so much pleasure, and with such particular emphasis, that it rouses the curiosity of the traveller, who is pressed to go and enjoy the wonders of which he has just heard the description, and certainly this place has every beauty that art, added to the bounties of nature, can present; in short, the whole valley consists of the most enchanting gardens. We return, after having admired the richness of the soil, and the delightful scenery, with considerable regret, that the inhabitants have not better profited by its luxuriances.

Two leagues distant from Soler to the N. & N. E. is the village Valdemusa, situated on the declivity of a hill: this little mountain joins to several others, which surround a deep valley in the shape of a tunnel; all these hills are covered with fruit trees, from which is derived the principal wealth of the inhabitants.

Valdemusa is ill built; the streets are very inconvenient, from their extreme declivity, and the badness of the pavement, which is composed of rough flints.

The population of this village amounts to above 1200. Besides a considerable quantity of fruit and vegetables, the lands produce a small quantity of oil, some earubs, and some silk; they have also some flocks of sheep and goats. Valdemusa is celebrated for being the birth-place of the fortunate Catharine Tomasa, who is remembered with such veneration throughout the island.

To the north of this village, is a convent of Chartreux. I visited this monastery, which contains about fifty monks; it is very large: the handsomest part is the new cloister, but there is only one side of it finished. Each monk has a small apartment, consisting of three parts, and a garden, which he cultivates for his amusement. Every necessary of food and raiment is found in this convent: the lands which surround it produce corn, wine, oil, fruit, and vegetables; and, in the interior, they manufacture the stuffs with which the monks are clothed. This monastery (like all those of the same order) is very rich: the monks are very charitable to the poor families in Valdemusa. Strangers may stay in this Chartreux three days, where they are lodged and treated with much attention. There is, near the body of the house, which is inhabited by the monks, a building, where-

in are kept all the comforts and conveniences necessary to hospitality.

About a league from Valdemusa, among the mountains, are several small chapels, the duty of which is done by hermits, who live separately and retired in huts, which they build themselves. These recluse men live on alms; they are frequently visited by the devotees of the island, by whom they are greatly respected. This place is called the Hermitage of Sainte-Marie, and the recluse exercise a kind of jurisdiction over all other hermits in the different parts of the island; they are clothed almost like the Capuchins; and are said to live very austerely.

Going along the north coast to the west, we come to the village Bagnafura, which is situated on a mountain, of which the part that looks to the sea forms a very steep declivity to the beach. From the summit to the foot this mountain is cut in stairs; each of the steps are supported by little walls made of dry stones. It is planted all over with vines, which, from the sea, have a beautiful appearance. At the time of the vintage, this mountain, covered with the peasantry of both sexes, presents a most animated picture. The population of Bagnabufar does not exceed 5 or 600 persons; the inhabitants are mostly in good circumstances, and live in great comfort: they have plenty of oil and fruit; but their chief wealth consists of wines of different qualities, which are much esteemed in the island. The mountains abound with springs of water, used by the peasants to wash and bleach their linen.

A little more to the west is a hamlet called Estellens. Turning from thence to the S. S. W. at the distance of about three leagues, is Andraig, a well-built village, containing about 4000 people. The inhabitants practise navigation, and thus make up for the poverty of their canton, which only produces oil. This is the most infertile part of the island. Andraig is not much more than a league distant from the sea shore. The harbour is only proper for small craft: it is very safe, and runs in shore near two miles. The road from the village to the port is tiresome, uneven, and full of loose stones.

Among the northern mountains, about four or five leagues from Palma, is the source of a kind of river, called la Rierra; it is almost dry during great part of the year; but in the rainy season it becomes very full, and extremely rapid, and often does considerable damage. La Rierra empties itself into the sea, under the ramparts of the city of Palma. In the year 1403, the water increased so rapidly, that 1600 houses were carried away, and 5500 people were drowned. In 1408, its ravages were renewed. The years 1444, 1618, and 1635, were also marked

by similar disasters; the waters overflowed and inundated all the country, and even in the city, they rose to the height of four feet, running into the sea, by the mole of the port.

Not far from the source of this river, is a village called Puigpugnent; it is situated in a large valley, covered with olive and other fruit trees. The produce of this orchard, joined to that of some flocks of cattle, and a small quantity of silk, make the wealth of the inhabitants, whose numbers may be about 1200. The houses of Puigpugnent are separate, and situated a good space one from the other.

A short distance from this village on the road to Palma, is another, called Calvia; the number of inhabitants is from 12 to 1300; the situation is hilly, and fruitful in oil, grain, and carroubs. The people of this canton are chiefly shepherds, and the flocks make their principal revenue. Calvia is near the small port of Paqura, where the king don Jayme the conqueror, landed in the year 1229. Don Alphonso, and don Pedro, also made choice of this place to land their troops.

Near to Calvia, on the sea shore is Deya, a village of little note, containing about 500 inhabitants, who like those of Calvia, employ themselves in feeding their flocks and swine; these animals rove at liberty in the underwoods which covers the canton. They have likewise some small quantity of oil.

The roads in the interior of the island are in a bad state, from not being kept in repair; this negligence is a sensible prejudice to the progress of agriculture, and to the activity of commerce, every article to be conveyed to the sea shore, must be carried on the back of a mule, or on carts of a clumsy workmanship, and which can travel but slowly.

The whole population of Majorca, amounts to about 136,000 inhabitants. Palma, the capital, contains 33,000. Of these, 136,000, they reckon 52,000 women, and 27,000 children; of the 33,000 inhabitants of the capital, 14,000 are women, and 5,108 children; deducting from the total of the population of the island, the women and children, there remains 57,000 inhabitants. In this calculation the aged and infirm are not reckoned, the number of whom is said to be 14,250; 42,750, is the number of those of age and strength sufficient for the culture of the lands, the navigation and defence of the island. This number of effective men, is still reduced by the ecclesiastics, who amount to 2,055, 1002 of whom are monks. Thus Majorca, has but 40,693 men capable of labour. From the number of 52,000 women, must be deducted 1,204, of whom 600 are nuns, and of course devoted to celibacy; and 604 also devoted to celibacy, but voluntarily dedi-

cating themselves to an honourable and useful service in the different charitable establishments.

Might there not be added to the number of these women who do not encrease the population, those who giving way to their passions, are at once lost to society by idleness, which is always dangerous, and by that sterility, which is a consequence, or rather punishment of debauchery. In a climate such as Majorca, and under a government where the sex is almost authorized in its deviations, by an indulgence carried much too far, to what number would the calculation amount? The mind refuses to enter into such humiliating and painful investigations. For my part, I had rather turn my thoughts to those happier times, when Majorca was not yet subjected to a licentious depravity, so fatal to population, and to the good of society. The Majorcans have not always been incapable of conquering their passions, or of resisting the power of avarice. It is in the city, the abode of the greatest number of foreigners, that this shameful libertinism, mostly prevails. In the country in general, the females are virtuous, modest, and of pure morals.

CHAPTER II.

CLIMATE—QUALITIES OF THE SOIL—CULTURE AND THE PRODUCTIONS OF THE LANDS.

THE climate of Majorca is temperate, and the mountains which surround the island, protect it from the north winds; nevertheless they are some time visited by one of these, which descending from the mountains occasions a cold atmosphere in the plain, and at times does considerable damage; tearing up by the roots, and carrying away great part of the olive trees, with which the hills are covered. In the summer the sea breezes allay the extreme heat. The climate of Majorca varies with the different situations. In the month of August the inhabitant of the mountain feels not the inconvenience of the excessive heat of other regions; the islander who lives on the eastern borders, on the contrary experiences but little of the cold during the winter. The intermediate valleys do not owe their temperature to the coolness of the streams, for there are none in the island, but to the vicinity of the mountains, the chain of which extends to the East, the North and to the West,

and even stretches into the interior of the lands. Some of these mountains are very lofty : such as those of Pug-major, and Galatzo, on whose summits the air is often pure and serene, when at the same time the rest of the island is covered with clouds. The air passing through the kind of canals which are formed by these mountains, becomes rarified, and is cooled by the light winds, which carry it to the inhabitants of the valleys. The natural productions of the island are perfect thermometers, that tell the qualities of the climate, and which never deceive; let us extend our observations over the whole island of Majorca, we shall see it adorned with woods of odoriferous orange trees, the fruits of which are every where esteemed, and are not inferior to those of Malta and Portugal, and which have obtained it the title of the golden island. Here the eye beholds lofty palm-trees : there the caroub tree, which bids defiance to the severity of the winter, and presents from the beginning of August, a fruit ripened to perfection. Towards the end of June, the vine is loaded with clustres of grapes of exquisite sweetness and flavor; the finest cotton is here produced, as also the plantain, that wonderful production of nature, whose fruit feeds the poor Indian, whose bark furnishes him with domestic utensils, both convenient and elegant, with the leaves of which he covers his humble habitation, and which protects him from the heat of the sun. The plantain, which is found in many gardens at Palma, is the same described by Salmon in his History of the World, written in Italian, and Father Gumilla's History of Oroonoka.

It is true the Majorcans do not possess the fruit of the plantain, but this tree growing naturally in the island, is no small proof of the excellence of the climate. It is from the temperature of the Balears, that Strabo named them the fortunate islands.

In the northern part of the island of Majorca, the whole of the coast is lined with high and inaccessible rocks. To the East and South it spreads into plains, and has numerous ports and anchorages. Thus the island may be divided into two parts : the plains and the mountains. On the last, the soil is of a reddish colour, and mixed with stones, nevertheless it is very fertile. All these mountains are covered with trees from the top to the bottom; some of them are proper for building. The wild olive-trees are very hardy and numerous; the islander profits as much as he can by this bounty of nature; he grafts, cultivates, and indeed uses all care and attention, to preserve these valuable trees. To prevent their being torn up by the roots, and carried away by the torrents, which at times precipitate from the

mountains, he protects each tree with a little wall of dry stone, which supports the lands and leaves the water a free course; all these little ramparts have a passage between them for the purpose, sufficiently wide; we may reckon more than thirty of these walls, one above another, forming a kind of amphitheatre, which has a very pretty effect, and gives at the same time an idea of the labour, industry and patience of the cultivator.

In the chain of mountains of Majorca, may be distinguished those of Torella and Galatzo, entirely covered with trees, chiefly olives and green oaks; among these last are some of an astonishing size; there are also many others fit for carpenter's work, and firs which serve for the building of small vessels.

At the time of the last expedition of the Spaniards against Algiers, they had from hence, wood, to build thirty seven bombs and armed vessels.

The soil of the plains is not so fertile as that of the mountains; in many places it is very much sunk, so that in the times of abundant rains, the water lays on the ground till the seed perishes; even in favourable seasons the crops are always weak in these cantons of the island, but many parts of the plain seem to be very proper for meadows, or grazing lands. There is here found in abundance a kind of jonquil, of which the large cattle are very fond, and particularly the horses; there are also great quantities of angelica and wild celery; these two plants so much sought after, and which produce so much in other places, were here, a few years back, of no value, the islanders neglected or did not know the means of making their cultivation an advantage; a Frenchman has profited by their carelessness or ignorance.

The island is watered only by the springs which comes from the midst of the mountains; but at those seasons when the snow melts which covered the summits of the mountains, and when the rains are heavy and of long duration, these streams run down in torrents, attended with danger, more than equal to the utility.

Majorca has many deep holes in the earth, dry pits hollowed by nature, which assisting the explosion of the inflammable air, contribute to prevent earthquakes; in fact there is here no remembrance of any such event.

Within these few years, there has been discovered in several places, a vein of pit-coal; some individuals united in the intention of undertaking the work. But the labour presented such a prospect of expence, greatly above the means of the society, that

it was given up ; in fact it could never succeed without the assistance and protection of the government.

It has been said by some, that veins have been found, indicative of mines of gold and silver, and that minium, or red lead of a superior quality, had been discovered, as also mercury. These reports, however, are not believed, and the number of the islanders who appear to give them any credit, is confined to a few old men, who are fond of wonderful stories.

I was also assured, that in the mountains of Majorca, there were found granite, garnets, agate, jasper, and porphyry ; but I saw none of them, and I believe these discoveries may be ranked with those of the gold and silver mines.

I saw at the convent of the capuchins, a very large window, the only one which there was in the choir, composed of panes of a kind of transparent stone, which the friars told me was brought from Bagnabufar ; but I know that it came from Valencia.

At Andraig, Puigpugnant, Bagnabufar, and Bugfola, is found marble, that is speckled with red and white.

At Alaro is extracted a kind of marble, which they call *anandrado*, from the form of the shades, which resemble almonds ; it is black and white. Although it is common ; it is much valued.

The islanders make use of these marbles in the decoration of the churches, and the gates of the houses belonging to the rich.

Beninsalem furnishes flat square stones, with which the churches and houses are paved.

From Bagnabufar, is brought free stone ; from Arta and Manacor, mill stones ; at Estellencs is often found stones with a very sharp edge.

The sandy stone which is used for building, is common at Lluch-Major, and at Santaqui ; it is proper for fortifications, as it is not liable to crack. It is of this that the ramparts at Pahná are built.

In many parts of the island slate is found, but the islanders make no use of it.

At Arta and Estellencs, are some grottos, where the variety of the stalactites amuse and interest the observer with the sportiveness of nature.

Fire-stone is very common in the island of Majorca, and almost every where there is plenty of a sort of white lime or plaster, which is much in esteem.

In general the stony part of the mountains is composed of

mixed stones, formed of chalky, viscidifiable, and refractory parts.

In the vicinity of Campos, are situated some salt-pits, which they do not make so profitable as they might.

If they were attended to with more care, and some money were expended in the work, they would not only be sufficient for the consumption in the island, but that there would be a considerable overplus for exportation.

There is no doubt but that the island of Majorca presents a large field for the researches of the botanist. It affords simples, and plants of every kind; and probably there might be discovered among them some new ones, or such as are scarce in other places, or at least but little known. I distinguished the *Hypericon ligusticum*, a kind of myrtle, of which the islanders make but little use. The socotorine aloe of Majorca is much esteemed, and the angelica and hemlock are much finer than in any other place.

As for the mineral waters, I only saw one spring, near Campos, it is called the fountain of St. John; the water appears to me to be strongly impregnated with sulphur; it is warm, and the inhabitants use it for curing cutaneous distempers.

There are very few venomous reptiles in the island of Majorca.

There is nothing particular in the birds and quadrupeds, nor did I observe any thing remarkable in the different kinds of fish.

The island of Majorca, is, without contradiction, one of those most favoured by nature, being so advantageously situated between Europe and Africa, the temperature of the climate, and the quality of the soil, insure to the inhabitants the blessings of abundance; nevertheless agriculture is far from that degree of perfection, attained to in other countries. One is at first struck with their imperfect manner of culture; but the astonishment ceases, on calculating the population and extent of the surface of the island, and on observing the manner in which the lands are divided and managed. I have followed the husbandman in his labours with an attentive eye, and observed his customs and prejudices.

In an account given to the supreme council of finances at Madrid, the surface of the island of Majorca is estimated to be 1234 square miles. The whole population is but 136,000 souls, nevertheless the produce of corn is insufficient, and there is some imported, at least 50,000 fanques every year. The fanque is a Spanish measure, containing twenty-five pounds, of sixteen ounces to the pound.

This deficiency in the article of corn, far from diminishing,

seems to increase progressively. There is no doubt but that the lands which are situated at the foot of the mountains, or in the vicinity of torrents, must lose much of their salt and vegetable succulency, and experience a sensible deterioration, from the effect of the abundant rains, and the inundations of the torrents. To these physical causes, may be added those which arise from the want of information, means, and activity of the husbandman.

In the district dependant on Palma, the capital, are some fields or rather muddy lands, which are entirely uncultivated. There are also other lands of the same kind, and in the same neglected state, in the districts of Andraig, Calvia, Campos, Santagui, Petra, Muro, Penbla, Alendia, and Pollenza: the natural fertility of the soil, nevertheless promises to reward the labours of the industrious husbandman; the little which has been sown has produced in a ratio of forty to one. What a resource for the islander, and with what ease might he free himself from the tax, which he annually pays to the states of Barbary, to make up the deficiency of corn.

This hope is not founded on a false calculation; its possibility may be known, by casting the eyes around on other portions of land in the neighbourhood of Arta and Manacor, which are proper for the cultivation of corn, and which are nevertheless almost entirely neglected, and where, at least for two years successively, no labour has been done.

The draining of the inundated lands is easy, and shews itself to be so, by the tendency of the waters to the sea, and their vicinity to the beach.

The Majorcan farmer is uninformed, or at most knows but little of the improvements in agriculture practised by strangers. His instruments of tillage are defective; the plough without wheels, is only composed of a long piece of wood, at the bottom of which is fixed the share, and at the other extremity is placed the heavy yoke; they commonly make use of mules, and even asses are employed to draw the plough. These animals are put to, in the same manner as oxen, which are also used in some parts of the island; the yoke rests on the shoulders. This method of putting to the cattle, takes away from their strength; the labourer is obliged alternatively to raise and push down the ploughshare; the furrows are consequently of little depth, and the land seems rather raked than ploughed.

To manure the lands, the Majorcans make use of the dung of the cattle, and the dirt of the streets, but they have not a sufficient quantity, considering the extent of the soil; sometimes there are pieces of land barren for want of dunging. They also make use

of sea-weed, mixed with marl ; but this is only in those districts that are near the sea-shore. Many of the peasants believe that when the rains are very heavy, just after the sowing season, the grain rots in the earth ; but this cannot be, except in those low lands, where the water remains a length of time. According to this idea, they sow the land afresh, and the first sowing, beginning to sprout, is choaked as it were, and weakened by the second seed ; the consequence is, that the blade is weak, and the ear not filled. The Majorcau neglects, or is little informed of the means of destroying the worms which eat the seed, or of preserving the corn from distemper.

The culture of maize, or of Turkey corn, is very little thought of ; it would be of great advantage, when there was a want of other grain.

For a number of years, the islanders have made it their chief care, to encrease the number of their fruit trees. This part of rural economy might be carried still farther, without infringing on the lands proper for corn. It is thought that near a twentieth part of the surface of the island might yet be planted. Above all, the mulberry trees come to great perfection ; the produce of silk is considerably increased, and, besides the consumption of the islanders, furnishes a new article for commerce and exportation. The culture of the mulberry trees is encouraged by the government, which has exempted the silks from every duty in going out of the island. Nevertheless this favour does not seem to induce the Majorcans to make new plantations ; numbers of them are persuaded, that the climate is not favorable to the propagation of silk-worms ; it would be easy to convince them, that this opinion is erroneous.

As for me, I think their indifference for this interesting branch of industry, is only the result of their ignorance of the culture of the mulberry tree, and of the necessary care of the silk worms.

The almond is, doubtless, one of the most useful trees to the Majorcans ; the leaves serve to feed the cattle ; the green bark burnt, is excellent for the manufacture of soap ; the dried bark is used for fuel. The ashes of the green bark are calculated at $8 \text{ p. } \frac{2}{3}$ of the value of the almond itself. They also obtain from the almond tree, some small quantity of gum, which is sent to Barcelona. The number of these trees is considerable, and encreases greatly ; it is thought they might still be increased one-third.

The fig-tree seems to be indigenous to the island ; the climate is very favourable, and it grows every where, almost without any trouble ; the fruit is a chief article of food to those islanders,

who are poor. The crop of figs amounts annually to 12,000 quintals, and this quantity might certainly be tripled; the culture and increase of the fig-tree is encouraged by the exemption of all duties on dried figs.

The quintal, or hundred weight, is estimated to be worth a piaster; thus, they would have a nett profit of 24,000 piasters, a sum that would partly pay for the foreign corn that is imported.

The number of those trees, which supply wood for the works of the joiner, such as poplars, walnut-trees, cherry-trees, &c. decrease insensibly. Their number might be increased with the greatest facility, by making plantations of them, in the numerous marshy places. The cantons of Soller and Esporlas would be very proper for encreasing the number of these trees.

Orange and lemon-trees seem to be sufficiently cultivated, though they might be brought to a greater degree of perfection.

The vine is also cultivated with care; but it is nevertheless true, that the Majorcans might much encrease the produce by planting divers fallow grounds, that are only fit for the vine.

The olive-trees, occupy at least one-third of the land of the island; although the culture of them is carefully attended to, yet there are means of melioration, which the islanders neglect, or are ignorant of; many of them do not know the proper time or manner of pruning; thus the extraneous branches absorb a part of the vegetable succulence, and impoverish the tree. Neither has the peasant the precaution of profiting by the rain, to form reservoirs to supply water for the olive trees; and however experience may prove, that the more these trees are watered, the more fruit they produce, yet in this particular they are indebted to nature only.

The caper-trees furnish the Majorcans with an article of consumption and exportation; it comes to perfection in the most sterile places; it takes root even on the walls, and it requires scarcely any other care, than to protect it from the rigour of the season in the winter.

Of fruits and vegetables there is abundance, but little variety; most of those cultivated in France, would succeed perfectly at Majorca.

I have sometimes eaten excellent Bèrrre pears, Doyenne pears, apples, and other fruits; the plants of which had been brought from France for a rich Majorcan, and which he cultivated for his own use. I have seen some emigrant Frenchmen, who live here very comfortably, on the produce of a small garden, where

they cultivate only such plants as are little known in the island.

To carry agriculture to the degree of perfection, of which it is capable in this island, the encouragement and assistance of the sovereign is necessary; for example, the draining of land, drowned by the stagnant waters, is an undertaking greatly above the means of an individual, who could never bear the expence of the work, or the purchase of the necessary machines.

The want of carriage roads, in a country where there are no navigable rivers to convey the commodities, is without contradiction, one of the great obstacles to the progress of agriculture. Every thing from the interior of the island is carried on the backs of mules, or on carts of a very clumsy make; these carts are composed of a kind of floor with a heavy beam, to which is fixed an ill-shaped axle tree; to this are fastened two flat wheels, formed of several pieces of wood, bound together with an iron hoop, which is also studded with the clumsy heads of large square nails. The axle tree turns, but the wheels are fixed: in the front of the cart, the beam forms a triangular space, where the driver places himself: he can add at pleasure, two boards to the sides of the cart; the mules are fastened by the neck to an enormous yoke, very heavy, and as big as the cart. This yoke is tied with a large rope to the beam, which for this purpose has at the end two iron hooks above, and two strong pegs or pins underneath; the rope is crossed between these points of support and stay. These heavy carts move with difficulty, and of course go slowly; their motion is attended with a deafening disagreeable noise. The mules are so fastened, that they cannot exert all their strength, and are soon tired; the driver is often obliged to place himself between the two mules to assist them, leading them by the bridle. When we behold these singular carriages, we cannot help thinking of the early ages of civilization. The coaches are likewise of a make which may serve as an epoch in the history of the Majorcans.

These defects are the consequences of the bad condition of the roads; a more convenient and lighter cart would be destroyed in ways so rough and full of stones and holes; for though the Majorcan cart cannot carry any great weight, and travels slowly, yet it has the advantage of being very strong, and never overturns. The driver on the way often sleeps, without any care, as he is sure of the mules, who are so fastened, that they cannot wander from the road, as is often the case with our shaft horses.

The disproportion of the population to the extent of the soil, is another cause of the languishing state of agriculture. I have

endeavoured to give the most exact calculations of that of Majorca; and comparing the number of individuals who may be employed in the cultivation of the lands, with the surface of the island, the disproportion is soon acknowledged. Many of the lands remain fallow for want of hands. The truth of this is sensibly felt about Alcudia, the second city of the island.

It is generally said that the cause of the depopulation of this canton, is the distemper occasioned by the air, which the exhalations from the Abufera render so very unwholesome. The Abufera seems to have formerly been a small sea-port for light vessels which drew but little water. There is still to be seen in some parts of the borders of this nasty pool, some remains of ancient construction, which seem to prove the truth of the conjecture.

By degrees this port became choaked up with the different substances which the rains and waters brought with them in their course. Thus this port, neglected by the inhabitants, became only a muddy morass.

I thought I perceived, in the situation of the actual state of the city of Alcudia, the true cause, or at least the chief cause, of its depopulation. Alcudia is built on the declivity of a mountain, two miles from the sea-shore; in this situation it has neither springs nor fountains; the inhabitants therefore must drink the water from their cisterns: the water becomes corrupted in most of these reservoirs for want of being kept clean, not so much from negligence as the want of hands. Every house has cellars more or less deep and wide; these places underground in the time of great rains are subject to be filled with water through those air holes which are open even with the edge of the soil; the accumulated waters in these cellars insensibly undermine the foundations and often occasion the houses to fall down in a moment's time.

These cellars must inevitably emit unwholesome exhalations; and these inconveniences, added to the bad quality of the water, which is drunk by the inhabitants of Alcudia, with food that is not very good, appears to me to be the true cause of the distempers, which are attributed to the Abufera.

I remarked that the inhabitants of the country about Alcudia, even in the vicinity of the Abufera, were very healthy, while those of the city shewed every symptom of ill health, languor, and despondency. On entering this unfortunate place, we appear to be transported to the abodes of the dead: the houses present the spectacle of a mass of tombs, and the citizens look like spectres. There are not more than seven or eight hundred

persons in Alcudia, and yet this city must have had a very numerous population, at least if we may judge by the part it has acted, in the course of the events which form the history of the island; and the Abuser, so pernicious at present, existed at the time of those events.

The situation of Alcudia between the two finest and best anchorages of the island, is so advantageous for commerce and navigation, that it naturally creates the desire to profit by it, by endeavouring to encrease the population of this unhappy canton. They have therefore held out the inducements of a small sum of money, a certain portion of land, and some of the uninhabited houses, to whoever would go and settle at Alcudia; they deceived themselves by these measures, for it was evident that no islander would leave the canton where he lived in comfort, to go to another where his best hope would be to vegetate a long time before he could reap the fruits of his labour. These encouragements then could only be applicable to strangers, and few of those could be found in an island, where they are generally seldom more than birds of passage, and chiefly consist of sea-faring men, and where, as is the case throughout Spain, the intolerance of religion is a constant check to the industry of foreigners. The surest method would have been to have entirely abandoned the city of Alcudia, and to have rebuilt it in a situation nearer the point of the isthmus which separates the two bays. One of the most efficacious methods to attract thither new inhabitants, husbandmen, and consequently the collateral circumstances which produce wealth to this part of the island, would probably be to grant, at least for a certain number of years, an exemption from duties on all merchandize entering or going out of the bay of Alcudia.

If the hindrance to the progress of agriculture be an inevitable consequence of a deficiency of population; the manner in which this population is distributed and employed, appears to me to be a cause no less fatal; in calculating the total number of the inhabitants of the island, I make the deduction of those individuals who are lost to the cultivation of the lands, and to the encrease of population. To the brood of monks, nuns, and priests, spread over the town and country, there must yet be added a considerable number of young healthy people, who fill the seminaries and cloisters; some aspiring to a benefice, which would give them the means of living in sloth, and others mistaking their indolence, and aversion to labour, for a divine inspiration. To this class I have yet to add another who are equally lost, not to population, but to the labours of agriculture.

This is composed of a number of idle fellows dispersed in the houses of the rich, whose whole employ is to display (by wearing a shabby livery) not so much the opulence as the vanity of their patrons.

The unequal division of the lands is another error, destructive to agriculture. It necessarily occasions a bad rural administration; a single family, and often a single individual, is in possession of lands of very considerable extent. These lands, however large, are not cultivated so as to make them of a proper value, even to the proprietors themselves; they live retired in the city, and the former manage their estates. These last have only their personal interest to direct them in their labours; they therefore endeavour to profit by the limited time of their lease; and their care is, to draw from the land a produce above its natural fertility: exhausting the strength of the soil does not concern them, but the consequence is, that these lands remain a long time afterwards without produce. Thus we see that in great proprietorships, there is always considerable parcels of land which remain fallow; however, some proprietors have seen the inconveniences of this ill judged management, and have divided their large possessions in portions, which they have sold for life to divers husbandmen. And these men, thus become proprietors, have given their whole care to the melioration of the soil, which enables them at their deaths, to leave to their children the means of supplying their places, by new purchases.

The population in these cantons is increased in proportion to the comforts enjoyed by the inhabitants who cultivate the land.

I have it in my power to give a very striking example of this truth. The land of Saria was a few years ago entirely in the hands of one family. It was afterwards divided into small portions; and at this time one of these portions, which are called establishments, contains eight hundred inhabitants. The lands which had been in an uncultivated state until the time of this division, produced abundantly. The land of Santa-Ponca, which remained in the hands of a single proprietor, produces but little, and for the most part appears like an uncultivated desert.

To obtain from the culture of the lands all the advantages which might be expected, it is necessary to enlighten the mind of the husbandman, to make him sensible of the defects of his management, to combat and conquer his ancient habits, and to subdue his prejudices, by setting before his eyes, the reiterated proofs the utility and superiority of other methods of managing the soil. It is to the conviction of this fact, that we are indebted-

ed, for the establishments of societies of economy and agriculture, in most of the cities of Spain, whose aim is to meliorate the culture of the lands, and assist the progress of the arts, and of commerce. Majorca has a society of this kind under the name of *friends of the country*. But often the means of improvement are wanting: they find themselves at a stand in designs of great utility, and to plans of less importance they do not give much attention.

The chief produce of the island of Majorca, consists of wheat, barley, oats, almonds, figs, oranges, vegetables, oil, wines and brandies.

The wheat harvest yearly amounts to 507,228 fanéques. The barley harvest amounts to 178,279, and that of oats to 121,766.

The quantity of wheat and barley is insufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants; they import from Barbary to make up the deficiency.

The oats produce a sufficient quantity for the consumption of the island.

The Majorcans gather near 107,414 fanéques of vegetables of every kind. The beans alone, although the chief article of food to the inhabitants of the country places, gives a surplus of about 12,000 fanéques, which are sent to Barcelona.

The produce of oil is calculated to be 2,081,969 arrobes, of which 100,000 are exported. The arrobe is a liquid measure of twenty-five pounds.

The number of oranges and lemons is reckoned to be 24,000 weight, 14,000 of which are sent to France and other places on the continent.

The almonds give 21,944 fanéques; 11,400 are exported.

The produce of figs is entirely consumed in the island, and amounts to 12,000 quintals; 952,747 arrobes is the quantity of wine produced; nearly 575,629 are consumed in the island.

They make about 37,400 arrobes of brandy, of which at least 15,000 are exported.

The Majorcans, besides their own consumption, export about 2,000 quintals of capers of different qualities.

The quantity of hemp may be about 6,000 quintals: of silk at most 400. The quantity of flax does not exceed 250 quintals. These two last articles are very insufficient.

The wines of Majorca are of different qualities. The lightest are those of Felanix, Manacor, Petra, and other places in the vicinity of these villages. Those of Sançellas and Beninvalet are much in esteem: but the wines of Bagnabufar are

the most excellent, and equal the best foreign wines: for deliciousness of flavor, and for strength, the Moscatel, the Malvoisie, the Pampel-Rodat, and the Montona of Pollenza, are particularly celebrated. The surplus of the consumption of the islanders is turned into brandies of three different qualities: the first, which the Majorcans themselves drink, is flavoured with aniseed; the second and third sorts are exported.

CATTLE.

The island of Majorca maintains 6,090 horned cattle; 61,324 sheep; 33,616 goats; 25,000 swine; 2,000 horses and mares; and 9,000 beasts of burden, asses and mules.

These cattle supply food to the Majorcans, and some for the culture of the lands, the conveyance of commodities, and the manufactories of very coarse cloth, with which the inhabitants of the country are clothed; the deficiencies made in the flocks by the consumption of the inhabitants, are made up, by oxen, sheep, &c. brought from Catalonia, the southern provinces of France, and the coast of Barbary, and sometimes the losses occasioned by epizootic distempers are repaired from Africa.

The oxen are in general small, lean, and weak, which proceeds rather from the want of pasturage, than from the quality of the fodder.

The mules and asses are on the contrary very strong. The maintenance of these animals requires but little care, and they are easily fed. They are smaller than those of Castile, but very gentle, and are broke-in without trouble.

None but these animals are employed as draught cattle, either in town or country. A very few days after they have left the pasture, they may be employed without inconvenience.

The horses are weak, have a miserable appearance, and are of very little service, faults which are attributed to the influence of the climate; but the bad food, and the little care that is bestowed on these animals, are more likely the real causes. They give them only straw and a little barley. The have no litter in their stables, but sleep couched on the pavement, which is always very damp; economy makes them prefer mules, which moreover bear fatigue much better.

The sheep are large; their fleece is very thick and the wool is very fine, and furnishes the islanders with about 500 quintals, per annum. The ewes and goats supply milk and cheese; they make of this last article, nearly 8000 quintals, of which, about 4500 is sent into the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

The peasants are accustomed to make of the cream, a sort of white cheese called *Brosat*, which is of a very pleasant flavour. Of this cheese they easily make butter of a delicate taste, but in quantity it is so reduce^d that it will not furnish any for the use of the kitchen.*

Of small pieces of mutton they make a kind of pye, which they season very much with pepper, and they are careful that the paste shall be but little baked, so that it remains white after it comes out of the oven. They make at the same time a sort of little cakes, the chief ingredient of which is cheese; they have therefore given the name of *Fromegiades* to this singular sort of pastry. It is a custom in all families, whether rich or poor, to make some of these pies and cakes for the time of Easter: the day on which they proceed to this very interesting operation, is a holiday for the women who are engaged in it; who previously invite their female friends, kinsfolk, and neighbours. They assemble together in the chief rooms of the house; women, children, mistresses, and servants, range themselves without any distinction around a table of sufficient length, where they set to work, and never quit their place, till the *Fromegiades* are drawn out of the oven. They then divide and share them, making choice of some to present to their friends, &c. &c.

To proceed in the description of the animals, the swine are large; those they kill at the shambles generally weigh from 300 to 350 pounds. The Majorcans are very partial to this kind of meat; the fat is only used in their ragouts. There is not any family whose circumstances are easy, who do not kill a pig or two at the beginning of the year; and who do not preserve the lard and melt it for the above purpose.

They make of their pork a kind of saussages, called *Sopresades*, which are extremely high seasoned. These are seldom liked by strangers, but the Majorcans are extravagantly fond of them. They also make a kind of pye, of pieces of *pufifar*, a kind of black pudding, made of the fat and blood of the pig, and peppered very much; they add to this, pieces of love-apples, and some dried grapes. The first time I tasted this species of pastry I thought I was poisoned, nevertheless it is a kind of cookery much in vogue.

The day when they kill the pig, is a similar holiday to that of the *Fromegiades*, and is another occasion for the Majorcan

* We can only understand this passage, by supposing that cheese is of a peculiarly obnoxious quality. To make butter out of cheese seems an absurd anomaly; but we have literally given the expression of the author. "*De ce fromage on fait facilement un beurre d'un gout delicat, &c.*" Ed.

women to invite their relations and friends. These are invited to *porchegar*, that is to say, to assist and take part, in all the operations of the *charcuterie*; which word includes curing sausage, and black-pudding making, &c. &c.

They have plenty of poultry, but not many geese or ducks: the islanders seldom eat them.

They have small game in tolerable plenty, such as partridges, quails, woodcocks, thrushes, rabbits, and hares, &c. There are no beasts of prey except foxes, and of them but few.

Among the birds of prey the most common is the sparrowhawk.

The Majorcaus keep a great number of pigeons; there is not a house without some of them.

Fish is not plenty, the fishermen do not go far from the shore, and fish of any considerable size are very scarce.

CHAP. III.

DESCRIPTION OF THE CITY OF PALMA.

PALMA, the capital of the island of Majorca, is a Bishop's See, and has a Governor-general, whose military jurisdiction extends to the Baleares and Pithiesian islands. A royal audience was established in this capital in the year 1572, whose jurisdiction civil and criminal, had the same extent as that of the governor-general. Don Ferdinand the catholic founded a University at Palma, in the year 1483.

In 1697 there was formed, under the protection of the king, an economic society, composed of the persons most respected for rank and talents. Their labours embraced every object which could tend to the moral or physical good of the island.

The desire of the public welfare engaged the count de Campanares, under the administration of the Count Florida Blanca, to solicit the court of Madrid for its protection to the above establishment in the city of Palma; and that it might be put on the same footing with those of the capital, Charles III. favoured the beneficial views of that nobleman. The new society held their first assembly on the 25th day of September in the same year; and took the title of, "*The Society of the Friends of the Country*," and for a device, a palm tree hung with trophies, composed of several implements of agriculture, navigation, and

the arts, by the side of which is placed a cornucopia, and above is a mirror reflecting the rays of the sun; in the distance is seen the city of Palma, with the following inscription, *Societate Clarior*; and around it, *Real Sociedad De Amigos, Del País, Del Reino, Di Mallorca*. This society annually bestow prizes on those artists, or mechanics who present any work performed with a remarkable degree of perfection, or any new invention of approved utility.

They also give rewards to those children in the principal schools, who distinguish themselves by their superior talents, or particular improvement. Palma is also the residence of an intendant, and a numerous nobility who are extremely vain of their antiquity, and tenacious of their titles and rank. It is situated on the sea-shore, and describes a semi-circle. This city is enclosed by a wall of fourteen palms in thickness, but made with a sort of white soft stone, which a cannon ball does not break or split. This wall is protected by thirteen bastions, and other fortifications of some strength; but which do not seem capable of defence for any length of time against a siege. There are eight gates to this city, two of them are on that side which is next the sea.

The port is small, and can only receive vessels that draw but little water, which moor on the north side to a narrow ill paved mote, which is about two hundred and fifty fathoms in length. It is terminated by a bastion, and a small house, where those who are appointed as guardians of health attend to receive the declarations of those captains, whose vessels arrive in this port. Near the mote is a dock where small vessels are built.

There is also another dock situated on the sea-shore, near the port Aux Pins, which they very improperly call the dock-yard.

One of the principal buildings of Palma is the palace of the governor general, where the regent of the audience, and the intendant have also their apartments. This palace is very large but built without any regularity or taste; it is composed of great halls, and small inconvenient, ill-furnished chambers. Its situation on the sea-coast, of which it commands an extensive prospect from a large balcony, makes a little amends for the melancholy appearance of the apartments.

After crossing a large court-yard we ascended a flight of stone steps to the palace. The first room is a kind of vestibule, which serves for the body guard. We then go to the right, through two large rooms, wherein there is scarcely a seat. The third is the hall of audience, in which is a throne of crimson velvet,

fringed with gold. The three steps on which the throne is raised, are covered with a carpet. At the two sides, are two lions carved in wood, and gilt; the canopy is also of crimson velvet, and the top is ornamented with panaches of ostrich feathers. Above the throne are the portraits of the king and queen: it is in this room that the governor, on court and gala days receives the compliments of the nobility, the officers of the garrison, and strangers of distinction. The rooms, contiguous to this hall, are those where the governor and his family reside; they have nothing remarkable, nor is there any thing more worthy of notice in the apartments of the intendant and of the regent of the audience. The furniture is more or less rich and elegant, according to the wealth and taste of those who inhabit the rooms.

In the body of this palace is the chapel royal, the audience-chamber, the archives, an armoury, two guard-rooms, and a barrack for one hundred and fifty horse soldiers. There are also two gardens belonging to the palace; one is for the use of the governor-general, the other for the regent of the audience; they are not either of them any thing more than kitchen gardens. Near the palace there is a large square tower very high, in which are kept the prisoners of state. They pretend that this palace was the work of the Romans; but from the form and style of its architecture, I do not think that the construction of the edifice goes back to a more remote epoch, than that when the Moors were masters of the island. It is 509 years since the princes of that nation possessed Majorca: the first time that I traversed the immense chambers of this antique castle, I could not help fancying myself cotemporary with the remotest periods of history, with the Romans, the conquerors of the Carthaginians; and here I called to mind the times when the Vandals were masters of the island in 456. I gave a few tears to the memory of the unfortunate Belisarius, who, after the conquest of the Balears, and moreover of Africa, was overwhelmed by the injustice and ingratitude of the emperor Justinian. Nor could I help making some serious reflections on the ravages of the Moors. I quitted, however, these melancholy pictures for one which was an object of admiration, the king, don Jayme of Arragon, triumphant over the barbarians.

The cathedral is handsome, but of Gothic architecture; the dome is sustained by two rows of seven pillars each, seven palms and a half in diameter, and one hundred and fifty-six in height. The architecture of this church is bold, and does honour to the artist who undertook it, under Don Jayme, conqueror of the island. The ancient front, which corresponded with the rest of

the building, has been replaced by a wooden ornament in a bad style. The interior of the church, the grand altar, and the chapels have nothing very remarkable; the choir occupies the center of the aisle, and destroys every grace and beauty. It is composed of a quantity of masonry work, of cut stone, without the least ornament: at one corner of this heap is a pulpit, which by its form of a long square, rather resembles a rostrum. It is entirely of stone, but decorated with some sculptural designs. The throne of the bishop, and a range of stalls of walnut-tree wood, occupy the interior of the choir. In the midst is an enormous octagon reading desk, which only leaves a narrow passage on each side. Between the choir, and the grand altar is placed the tomb of king Jayme II.; it is a kind of urn of black marble, with some ornaments of copper, gilt. It is supported by four lions' feet, which do not appear to be in proportion with the grandeur of the mausoleum: above is a crown of silver. A Latin inscription transmits to posterity the epoch of the death of that monarch. This tomb is surrounded by an iron grate, of the height of three feet, and which separates it from the entrance to the choir. The most remarkable chapels are those of the crucifixion of St. Martin, and of St. Benoit, but there is only a confused heap of sculptures to be seen. The traveller, Pons, complains of having seen the same fault in several churches of the continent. The artist who constructed the baptismal font, has avoided these defects, and has only adopted in his work a noble and agreeable simplicity. It is of a fine marble, speckled red. The pictures which ornament the church deserve but little the attention of connoisseurs. The paintings *al fresco* of the chapel of Ascension, are of strong colouring, but are wanting in the design. The chapel of Piety is ornamented with twenty eight pictures of different saints, the frames of which touch each other. If this assemblage inspire veneration, we are not in a less degree disgusted with the superstition which prevails: they preserve with the greatest care in the treasury, a piece of the real cross, three thorns of the crown of our Saviour, a part of his robe, and a part of the veil of the Virgin Mary, with one arm of St. Sebastian. They pretend that these relics were brought and deposited at Majorca in 1512, by Manuel Suria, arch-deacon of Rhodes. Among the riches of the treasury are six silver candlesticks of an extraordinary size; they have each seven branches, and are of excellent workmanship; the feet are supported by satyrs, which has been sometimes a subject of ridicule against these extravagant enthusiasts.

They do not place these candlesticks at the high altar, except on the most solemn holidays.

The clergy of the cathedral consist of the bishop, six dignitaries, viz. an archdeacon, a sacristan, a dean, a chanter, an under chanter, and a treasurer, and of twenty-two canons, besides a certain number of other ecclesiastics belonging to the service of this church. The music of the cathedral consists of different instruments and voices; there is also a very fine organ.

The revenues of the bishopric are estimated at 45,000 piasters; those of the six dignitaries amount to 10,000, and 42,500 are appropriated to the prebends. Three portions of 1750 are deducted for the inquisitors; all these sums accrue partly from the rents belonging to the cathedral.

The king receives the ninth part of the tithes. The subordinate ecclesiastics are paid from a sum of 4000 piasters, to which is added the amount of the legacies left by the pious islanders to the cathedral; they have moreover their masses, and the casual advantages of their functions.

The episcopal palace is not so large as that of the governor-general, but much better disposed, and better furnished. In the first hall or apartment, are the portraits of all the prelates who have filled the see of Majorca, since the foundation of the bishopric. The second apartment is the library, which however contains but few books, and those mostly on the subject of religion. The rest of the palace presents nothing interesting; the garden is small, and is only cultivated for the use of the table.

Besides the metropolitan church, there are five parishes at Palma; ten convents for men, and eleven for women.

The number of monks and ecclesiastics is very considerable; all the churches and convents are richly endowed; and the monks have an inexhaustible fund, in the mistaken devotion of the faithful; their great riches, and their want of morality, have sometimes attracted the attention of the government.

Of the churches in this city, that of the parish of St. Michael is worthy of notice: it was formerly a mosque of the Moors. At the time when the islanders were converted to the christian faith, the holy mysteries were celebrated for the first time in this church. It is one of the smallest, being only 163 palms in length, and 87 in width.

The handsomest and richest churches are those belonging to the monasteries. They preserve in that of the Augustines the body of Saint Catharine Tomasa, who was a Majorcan. They also shew in the village of Valdemansa, her paternal residence, in front of which they have placed an iron cross. The

feast of this saint is celebrated every year with much magnificence : her life and her miracles are recorded in many works of her countrymen. Curiosity impelled me to turn over the leaves of one of these writings in the Majorcan idiom. Bartholomew Pont, the author, seemed to have collected some good stories for children and old women ; but the style of this panegyrist is devoid of every charm.

The churches of St Eulalia, and St. Magia, possess the dangerous privilege of being an asylum for criminals who take refuge there. Every church in Spain was formerly an inviolable refuge for criminals and persons pursued by justice, who could not be taken from thence, without the assurance of not being condemned to death, whatever might be the crime. In civil matters, all the proceedings of justice were suspended. For example, a bankrupt in that asylum had nothing to fear from his creditors. It may be easily supposed, how much a privilege of this kind is injurious to the safety and tranquillity of the public, a privilege which gives to the man without morals advantages so prejudicial to probity and honesty. The multiplicity of shocking abuses, which this privilege occasioned, at length determined the government to confine it to a certain number of churches in every city.

The church of St. Eulalia is situated in the market place ; that of St. Magia is in the suburb of St. Catharine, which is entirely inhabited by sea-faring men. Its being thus situated in a part which is generally filled with the common people, makes the privilege particularly injurious to society.

The exchange is one of the most beautiful buildings in the city. It is a very large hall, whose roof is only supported by four light pillars. The stone of which it is built, was taken from the quarries of Santagui. The style of architecture is gothic. The epoch of the building of this exchange, is anterior to that of the discovery of America. It is a monument of the splendour of the commerce which enriched the Majorcans at that time. The wages of the workmen who were employed in building this edifice, amounted to 15,000 ducats, an enormous sum in those days, when gold and silver were not very common. Behind this exchange is a garden, where they formerly cultivated only exotic and scarce plants. The love-apple, and the pimento, of which the Majorcans are so fond, have now taken their place. This garden was also ornamented with a stone fountain and jet, and with several statues, of which there is now nothing to be seen but the ruins. The hall of the exchange, being a convenient place for the purpose, is used for the masked balls given at the time of

the carnival. I have seen there above twelve hundred persons mingled together in the greatest confusion.

Near the garden of the exchange there is a small house, where the tribunal of commerce holds its sessions.

The town-hall also deserves the attention of the traveller, for architecture, and the sculptured ornaments on the front of the building. They are like those on the rest of the public edifices, of a gothic sort, but of curious workmanship. The interior is divided into several halls where the civil and criminal courts are held. The Majorcans are eager to shew to strangers, the room where are placed the portraits of the illustrious characters, and the great men, who have done honour to Majorca, with those of the present day, who hold the first rank among their fellow citizens. I was not a little astonished to see among the first class of these portraits, that of Hannibal, who they assert was born at Majorca. The Majorcans relate, that Hamilcar passing from Africa to Catalonia, with his wife, who at that time was pregnant, landed on a point of the island, where was a temple dedicated to the goddess Lucina, and that Hannibal first drew breath in this place. This same story is found in Daneto's History of Majorca. A lofty ambition, and excessive self-love, make a very prominent feature in the general character of all islanders. I have had time and frequent occasions to observe the truth of this remark, during a residence of above five and twenty years in different islands. The high opinion, which the Majorcans entertain of themselves, is the result of the want of a knowledge of the world, and of the opportunities of comparison with strangers, of whom they see only a few travellers. Thus a Majorcan, like every other islander, thinks there is nothing in the world which can be compared with his own country. He boasts of the superiority with great confidence, and it is a vain attempt to endeavour to remove a prejudice which is so flattering. All the pictures which ornament this room of the town-hall, are portraits of the bishops, ecclesiastics, and illustrious military characters; they have also the portrait of Saint Raymond Lullus, and king don Jayme, the conqueror, is represented on foot, in a costume which much resembles the long robe of the Greeks.

From this hall we pass to that which is used for a drawing-school, where a certain number of young men take lessons from masters, who are paid by the archbishop of Seville, who is a Majorcan, and by the bishop of Majorca, who are the founders of this school. All the other apartments are large empty rooms. In front of the building there is a long iron balcony, which seems to have been added within these few years.

The Majorcans preserve with much veneration, the armour of king don Jayme. It consists of a helmet, a cuirass of gilt iron, a long rusty sword, and a piece of a lance. The saddle, housings, and harness of his horse, are also preserved with the same care, though they are nothing but shreds and tatters. These relics, together with all the portraits, are exposed in front of the town hall, on the last day of the year, which is a holiday, kept in memory of the day in which don Jayme made his entrance into Palma. The portrait of this prince is placed under a canopy. A large stuffed lizard, about two feet long, is also exposed to view; this is suspended over the door of an apothecary, who is very vain and tenacious of the privilege. Nothing can be more astonishing, than that persons seemingly well informed, should repeat seriously the ridiculous stories which they relate on the subject of this lizard; "This monster," say they, seeming still to behold it with fear, "formerly ravaged the island of Majorca, and unpeopled the dwellings that were near the morass to which it usually retired." One of the ancestors of the apothecary, who possessed the skin, succeeded in delivering the island from this plague. He has been granted the privilege of thus exhibiting this monument of his prowess, on the day which recalls the memory of the conquest of the island, and its deliverance from its subjection to the Moors.

A piece of antiquity, which appeared to me well worthy of attention, was the clock of the town-hall, called Balearic. Darneto, the historian, in the description, which he gives of it, fills six pages in folio with a dissertation on the manner of dividing the day among the different people of antiquity. Mnt, who wrote the continuation, has also dedicated four pages to an eulogy on this curiosity.

This very ancient piece of mechanism is called the clock of the Sun. It shews the hours from the rising until the setting of that luminary; following the greater or less extent of the diurnal and nocturnal arch; so that on the 10th of June it strikes the first hour of the day at half past five, and the fourteenth at half-past seven; the first of the night at half-past eight; the ninth at half-past four, on the morning following. It is the inverse to begin from the 10th of December, during the course of the year. The hours are exactly regulated according to the variations of the rising and setting of the sun. This clock is not of much use to the people of the country, as they regulate the time from the modern clocks. It is, however, of service to gardeners to determine the proper time for watering their plants. It is not known at what epoch this curiosity was brought to Palma. It is not thought that it came from

Spain, Germany, or Italy, where the Romans had introduced the manner of dividing the day into twelve hours; beginning at the rising of the sun. If we are to go back for the epoch and place for the construction of this machine to the time of the Israelites, we shall see, that under the reign of King David, the day and night were divided into four vigils. At the coming of Jesus Christ, the Jewish hours made three of the present mode of reckoning. However, an ecclesiastic, rector of the University of Palma, assures us, in the third part of a Work upon the Seraphic Religion, that some fugitive Jews in the time of Vespasian dug out this famous clock from the ruins of Jerusalem, and transported it to Majorca, where they had taken refuge: — miraculous origin, well suited to the characteristic taste of the islanders for the marvellous!! The historians, Dameto and Mut, only date the antiquity of this Balearic clock from the year 1385. It was brought from the convent of Dominicans, and placed in the tower, where it now is.

Near the town-hall are the prisons; where, as in all others of Spain, the unfortunate inhabitants breathe an unwholesome air, and are at the mercy of cruel and unfeeling gaolers.

The house of the Inquisition has nothing remarkable; the name alone is sufficient to check any curiosity of visiting this abode. The Inquisition is no longer that dreadful tribunal, whose proceedings and judgments so many writers have transmitted to posterity; probably with a little exaggeration. The edicts of the government, marked with humanity, justice, and wisdom, have taken from the Inquisition that authority which was so dangerous: the places are now only given to such ecclesiastics as are distinguished by their virtues, moderation, and learning.

The Jews, a class of people whose only crime was often the wealth they had acquired by their industry, and their knowledge of trade, now live in peace, and may increase the riches of their country without fear of the torch and of the stake. The Inquisition, a tribunal formerly so terrible, cannot now even disturb the liberty of a citizen, except it is previously authorised by the government, which alone pronounces on the validity of their motives. If any individual attracts the attention of the Inquisitors, by offensive conduct, or irreligious conversation, he is cited to appear before them, when he is charitably reminded of the duties which a citizen owes to society; and it is only his obstinate perseverance in his errors that can subject him to punishment, which generally is a few days' seclusion in a convent. It too often happens, that strangers, whose minds are already prejudiced by what they have read or heard of the Inquisition,

entertain a mistaken opinion, judging by some abuses, of which they are witnesses; and which ought to be attributed either to the ignorance or indiscreet zeal, and more generally to the officiousness of some inferior agents. I have myself seen some instances of this: I witnessed the confiscation of "The Course of Study," composed by Condillac for the education of a prince of the house of Spain, which was condemned through the eagerness of one of these agents; but it was reclaimed, and immediately the inquisitors ordered it to be restored. Nevertheless, we still see in the convent of the monks of St. Dominick, pictures which preserve the recollection of the barbarities formerly exercised on the Jews. Every one of those unfortunate beings who were burnt, is represented in a picture, at the bottom of which is written the name, age, and the time when the unhappy victim suffered. I was assured, that a few years back, the descendants of these unfortunates, who now form a particular class among the inhabitants of Palma, under the ridiculous denomination of *Owls*, had in vain offered considerable sums of money, to have the distressing memorials effaced. I refused to believe the fact, but they assured me, that there was now in force a decree of government to punish every individual who uttered any injurious expressions against a Jew; that of *owl* is specified, and particularly forbidden, on pain of severe punishment; but, unfortunately, it is sanctioned by custom.

I shall never forget one day, when I was walking in the cloister of the Dominicans, and looking with concern on these paintings, a monk approached me, and made me observe among them several that were distinguished by crossed bones. These, said he, are the portraits of those whose ashes were dug up, and cast to the winds. My blood chilled, and I turned from him with horror. My heart sickened at the scene.

A Narrative of the Order of the Inquisition, which was printed in the year 1755, came, by chance, into my hands, which contained the names, surnames, rank, and crimes of the unhappy beings who were sentenced at Majorca, from the year 1645 to to the year 1691. I shuddered as I read. I there found that four Majorcans, accused of Judaism, one of whom was a woman, were burnt alive; thirty-two others, for the same crime, died in the dungeons of the Inquisition, and their bodies were burnt; the ashes of three were dug up and thrown to the winds: a Dutchman, accused of Lutheranism, a Majorcan, of Mahometanism, six Portuguese, one of whom was a woman, and seven Majorcans, for Judaism, were burnt in effigy, having been so fortunate as to make their escape. I counted two hundred and sixteen other victims, Majorcans and strangers, accused of

Judaism, heresy, or Mahometanism, who came out of the prisons, after having publicly retracted, and being again received into the bosom of the church. This dreadful catalogue was closed by a sentence of the Inquisition, no less horrible, of which I have here given a translation from the original Spanish :

“ All the criminals mentioned in this relation were publicly condemned by the holy office, as heretics ; all their goods confiscated, and applied to the royal revenue ; declared unfit and incapable of having or holding dignities or benefices, either ecclesiastic or secular, or other public offices, or honours ; neither might they wear, nor carry about their persons, either gold or silver, pearls, precious stones, coral, silk, cumblet, or fine cloth ; neither might they ride a horse, carry arms, or use and employ other things, which by common justice, laws, and pragmatics of this kingdom, instructions and customs of the holy office, are prohibited to those individuals who are thus proscribed ; the same prohibition extends, in the case of women condemned to the fire, to their sons and daughters, and in that of men, to their grandsons in the male line. At the same time, execrating the memory of those burnt in effigy ; and commanding that their bones (when they could be distinguished from those of faithful christians) should be dug up, and delivered to justice and the secular power, to be burnt, and reduced to ashes, and that every inscription, or armorial bearing, which should be found on their tombs or elsewhere, should be erased and obliterated, so that no other memorial of them should remain on the earth, than that of their condemnation and execution.”

There are four hospitals in Palma. That of the City, designed for the poor ; that called The Mercy, for the reception of children, who are the offsprings of debauchery, or youthful imprudence, or deserted by unnatural parents, and for the aged of both sexes, whose infirmities make them incapable of working for their bread. The military hospital for the soldiers of the garrison, and that called The Pity, for the reception and confinement of women of licentious conduct. The city hospital is a handsome building ; the men occupy two large wards, and the women two others. There are, besides, three wards, which are supported by particular societies. The whole hospital can contain five hundred beds. The sick are well attended ; the beds are good, and the food proper and wholesome ; the wards are large and well ventilated. There is also another part divided into small chambers, where the windows are strongly grated, which is designed for those who have had the misfortune to lose their reason, and whose madness is violent and dangerous.

This hospital is attended by people of both sexes; it is endowed by the city; and the property of the theatre belongs to it, of which it has a third of the profits of the daily receipts, and the rent of the boxes. The management is confided to some of the principal inhabitants, of Majorca, who zealously endeavour to fulfil a trust at once honourable and important, as it tends to meliorate the sufferings of the afflicted.

The other hospitals presented only a spectacle of misery. That of Mercy has no fixed revenue, and is merely supported by the voluntary contributions of the charitable inhabitants, and the profits of the labours of children, and of the aged, who are employed in spinning flax. This emolument is very inconsiderable; and the situation of those who are in the hospital is truly pitiable. The same sentiment of compassion prevails on seeing the military hospital, which is as badly constructed as situated. It may contain three hundred beds. It is managed by a person who may be said to farm it, and who receives from the king six reals per diem for each patient. This man provides beds, medicines, and food, and pays all those who are employed under him. The chaplain, physician, and surgeon have salaries from the king. The intendant of the province, and a commissioner of war, have the inspection of this hospital. The expenditure for each patient is estimated at three reals: the overplus of the sum granted by the king, is a perquisite which the person who farms the hospital divides with those whom he employs. Those patients who are crowded into the lower wards breathe a mephitic air, often occasioning fatal terminations to distempers, which originally were not at all dangerous. The seeds of putrefaction spread so much the more from not having a free circulation and change of air in the wards, and the want of cleanliness, which every observer must remark. The defenders of their country are here very far from enjoying those benefits which the tenderness of their sovereign means to supply them. Here, as it is in most other public establishments, rapacious avarice and ignorance swallow with impunity those funds which should give comfort to the afflicted.

The streets of Palma are in general narrow and ill paved, and there is not even one regular square in the whole city; and though the historian Dameto compares the Place des Bornes to the most beautiful squares in the several capitals of Europe, it is, in fact, only a small space of land of irregular shape, unpaved, and surrounded with dismal-looking houses. It is, however, the greatest promenade of strangers, and the daily rendezvous of those who do not know how to employ their time. The news of the day is there detailed, and politicians settle the affairs

of the state. The orators and auditors, at times, retreat into some mean coffee-house to enliven their imaginations with a glass of liquor, or to cool their arguments with refreshing draughts. Such are the delights of this place of which Dameto boasts so greatly. Scorched by the heat of the sun, and choaked with dust in summer; and in winter almost buried in the mud.

Palma has also another small square, situated near the port, from which it is only separated by the ramparts of the city. They have given the name of Terra Sana to this place.

According to general observation, made at the time when the plague raged in the island of Majorca, which is about eighty years ago, this quarter of the city was least affected by its ravages. The Terra Sana may be about large enough for eight hundred men to draw up in battle-array. One of the sides is formed by a small barrack, which is sometimes filled with foot-soldiers, and sometimes with cavalry. The stables will only contain from twenty-five to thirty horses. The square of the Terra Sana was formerly covered by the sea, and there is still to be seen the ancient entrance of the port. In short, there are no public promenades in Majorca; for la Rambe cannot be looked upon as deserving such a title, being only a walk about two hundred paces in length, with large trees on each side, and some stone seats. Of this walk no care is taken; for even those trees which have decayed, or been cut down, are not replaced; and though those which remain are very large, they are so distant one from the other, that they afford but little shelter either from the heat of the sun, or from the rain.

There is only a small space between La Rambe and the Place des Bornes, and it terminates at the gate of Jesus. On passing this gate we find another walk bordered with small trees, whose foliage is neither a shelter from the sun, nor pleasant to the eye. It is in length about six hundred paces, and reaches as far as the convent of Jesus. This promenade is frequented on holidays in the evening. The ladies here take an airing in their clumsy coaches. These heavy vehicles, drawn by mules harnessed with cords, follow one another in a train round this promenade for two or three hours. The footboards of these carriages are placed on the outside, and serve the young gallants to stand on while they make their court to the fair, who are much flattered by this public testimony of their regard. Any carriage which is going to or returning from the country, is obliged to take its place at the end of this train; from which it can only separate at the place where the carriages began their round. This custom every one is obliged to comply with. I was one day witness to a very diverting fracas. The lady of the governor

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general took it in her head to break the rank of coaches, and hers was instantly involved with all the rest. Nothing could be more ridiculous than this confusion, which might, however, have had very serious consequences. The Majorcan ladies stretched their necks out at the coach-windows, and addressed themselves to the governor's lady in the most insulting manner; who, on her part, returned the indecent expressions from her coach, and threatened them, shaking her fan. Add to this scene the language of the coachmen and footmen, who joined in the dispute and quarrelled among themselves, with the laughter and shouts of those who walked, and you will have some idea of this ridiculous scene. Would any one believe that this affair was the subject of long complaints, with which they pestered the court of Madrid. The process was determined in favour of the Majorcan ladies.

This manner of taking the air is called the "Roda."

If any one wishes to enjoy the pleasure of breathing freely a purer air than that of the city, he must go a considerable way into the country, where only the riches and beauties of nature are to be seen. They might, however, without much expence, make a very pleasant promenade, if to the distance from the gate of the port to that of Jesus was joined the place of the Bornes and the Rambe, they might plant a double row of trees, such as elms, which are very majestic, and afford a fine shade. They might also add to the pleasantness of the place by repairing a fountain, the ruins of which are to be seen at the end of the Rambe, which would be particularly useful in a city generally supplied with water only from cisterns.

But it is in vain to hope that the Majorcans would determine on any improvement which would unite utility with pleasure. They prefer being scorched in the sun, and soaked in the rain, and repeat, with the extravagant Dameto, that nothing equals their Place des Bornes and their Rambe. They actually assert it, and what is worse, they believe it.

Between the two last mentioned places is situated the theatre. It has been built about forty years, and is the property of the City Hospital. An escutcheon is placed above the stage, which bears these three letters, A. G. P. This theatre is large, with four ranges of boxes, to the number of seventy; those belonging to the city officers occupy the lower part of the space, and that of the governor general is level with the stage, on the left hand in entering. The pit can hold about three hundred spectators, who sit on wooden forms. The stage is in proportion to the size of the theatre. This building has no exterior ornament, and resembles a storehouse, or rather a barn. There is

but one entrance for the public. In front are some arches which support an open gallery; two small doors behind are used as entrances, one for the governor general, and the other for the performers. Near the entrance, in the interior, is a kind of coffee-room. All the boxes are let, with the exception of some few, which are the exclusive property of different families of *Malma*, who subscribed to the original fund at the time the theatre was built. The stage decorations are but poor, having no other funds than the rent of the boxes and the receipts at the doors, which barely suffice to pay the performers and others employed in the theatre.

The representations are composed of pieces of different sorts. The first is always a comedy or a tragedy; after which they perform the *tonadille*, a piece of Spanish music; a kind of cantata, which consists almost entirely of quavers of the voice, as tiresome to the hearer as to the singer. The poetry marks the particular taste of the people, and the words are the most trifling expressions of lovers. This cantata is sung by a male or female performer, or by both together. Sometimes, instead of the *tonadille*, there is a quartetto, or trio, of Italian music, to which Spanish words are adapted. To the *tonadille* succeeds the *volero*, or the minuet fandango, a Spanish dance, performed by a man and woman dressed *a la majo*, or in the costume of Andalusia. This dance is much admired by the Spaniards, who are pleased to applaud those contortions and attitudes, at which a stranger cannot avoid blushing. The spectacle concludes with a *saineté*, a little piece with which the people are infinitely pleased, as their manners and common customs are given with the most striking similitude. Sometimes the *saineté* consists of two little pieces, which are performed at the same time, for example: at the bottom of the stage is fitted up a smaller stage, where while they act a scene of washer-women, another of cobblers is playing on the ordinary boards. The actors in the two pieces address themselves to each other in the course of the representation: the audience are delighted, and applaud with all their might, while the few who are accustomed to any thing like propriety and decorum, take the first opportunity to escape from the noise and confusion. I have seen one of these miserable farces at Barcelona, and am no longer astonished at those of *Majorca*. Generally, the theatre serves at once to meliorate the manners and to instruct the common people; but in Spain it is precisely the contrary; for, in many Spanish pieces, immorality and disgusting indecency prevails. And with respect to the historical and literary part of the Spanish theatre, it is impossible to form an idea of the extravagancies and anachronisms which abound.

These are to be noticed in all their plays, not even excepting the best of them. Their authors do not confine themselves to the rules of dramatic composition; they do not attend to the unity of either time or place; but their pieces represent whole histories or romances. The hero of the piece appears in the first act as a child; and at the end dies in extreme old age, under a different hemisphere from that where it commenced; and often his history is continued during several days. The Spaniards call the acts *giornate*. It is with great difficulty that the intricacy of the piece can be followed, or rather guessed at: for the story generally finishes abruptly, without any dénouement; the curtain falls, and it is almost impossible to give an account of what we have seen performed. To these defects of composition is added the total want of scenic deception; the negligences, unpardonable absurdities in the costumes and decorations, and the most perfect ignorance of the subject in those who perform the several characters. In a piece called 'The Death of Hector, I have seen the hero of Greece, and the defender of Troy, appear, the one in a diagoon's uniform, and the other dressed as a hussar; king Priam in a French habit, ornamented with the insignia of the order of Charles the Third; and the beautiful Andromache in the fashion of the present time. A detachment of grenadiers under arms, with bayonets fixed, composed the armies of the Greeks and Trojans. The scene represented the field of battle. In the distance was to be seen the unfortunate Ilium, whose towers were changed into steeples. A roll of the drum gave the signal for engagement, and Hector announced, as he was dying, that the play was concluded, by saying *a qui s'acabé la comedia*. I could not help indulging the fancy of diverting myself a little at the expence of the manager. I observed to him, that Achilles and Hector fought with pistols, and not with swords. He frankly confessed that he was unacquainted with this circumstance; thanked me for my information, and promised to correct the error the first time the piece should be played again; and he kept his word. In another play, called "Aristotle, the Preceptor of Alexander," I have seen the philosopher in the costume of a bishop, with the pastoral cross; the conqueror of the Persians in a modern habit, with a red ribbon to distinguish him from Philip, whose order was blue; the princesses in Spanish habits. The scene should have been the interior of the king's palace; but it was a forest. Nevertheless several of our best authors have taken from Spanish pieces the subjects of theirs, which are deservedly admired. They have, like our artists, known how to make use of the Spanish materials to advantage. In the dramatic works of that country, there are

often found passages where genius is displayed, and where the passions and sentiments are given with dignity and animation; purity of style, with the choice and force of expression, would make one believe that the piece was only a compilation of passages collected from different works, and badly put together, and which may be compared to pearls set in base metal. The Spaniards are very fond of noise: thus their favourite pieces are those where they represent the battles between their countrymen and the Moors. It is of little consequence how the subject is conducted, while there is clashing of sabres and swords, killing of people, and castles destroyed; they ask nothing more, and the piece is excellent.

The *Trémoies* are another sort of pieces which are much to their taste: these are those in which the many different changes of scenery, and the number of stage tricks, make all the merit. The hero is always a magician performing wonders, or a saint working miracles. Such is the school where the Spaniards take their lessons of morality and history.

The houses of Palma are generally large but ill contrived, and very little ornamented. All the display is found at the entrance, in a kind of vestibule, or portico, supported by a number of pillars. I have remarked some that were of fine marble. The manner in which the houses are built recalls to recollection the times when the Moors were in possession of the island. They almost all consist of a ground floor divided into small rooms, and of one above, where the apartments are large and lofty. They are cool in the summer, and freezing cold in the winter. Above these large rooms is a second floor, open on every side; this is a kind of loft, or rather garret, where the washing is done, and where they have every convenience for drying. They have no chimnies, except in the kitchens, and these are not of much use, as all their victuals are dressed on stoves; they also warm themselves with *brasiers*; these are small pans, or stoves, to burn charcoal. Nothing can be so amusing as a Majorcan evening: men and women ranged, or rather squatted, on very low seats around the brasier. One, who has a small paper cigarre in his mouth, puffs the smoke amorously in the face of his mistress; who modestly looks down and stirs up the ashes in the brasier with a copper spoon; another relates the news of the day, or volunteers a song; sometimes the whim takes the master of the house to sing the service in a doleful tone, at the same time counting the beads of his rosary; all the company joins in a low note, and even the servant girl, who is perhaps scowering her coppers, joins her voice from the kitchen to those above. It is impossible for a stranger to keep his place among

them any length of time; he retires stammering *un bon nit tingers*, which is their manner of wishing good night.

The French emigrants at Majorca have introduced the use of chimnies. Those which the Majorcans now have are almost all the work of Frenchmen.

Their residence in this island, and the increase of the garrison, have also led to an alteration in the manner of building houses. Lodging became scarce, and the hire of apartments increased in proportion. The Majorcans, whose fortunes consisted of houses, altered their large rooms, and divided them into smaller apartments, for the convenience of receiving a greater number of lodgers. Those who built, altered the plan of the staircases to take up a smaller space of ground; they constructed the stairs more perpendicular, which has made them difficult of ascent, and dangerous to descend, particularly to those who are subject to vertigo.

I remarked here, as in most of the houses in the cities of Spain and Italy, the singular custom of placing the privies near the kitchens. I could not obtain a satisfactory reason for this particularity. As to many other questions, they answered me it was the custom.

In Cooke's Voyages, may be found some conjectures on the origin and motive for the situation of these places, which seemed to me to be so extraordinarily misplaced. This celebrated voyager remarked, in a part of the isle of Portland, where he landed, that the Indians, not so cleanly in their persons as the Otahetians, surpassed them in one particular, of which there is probably no example among the other Indian nations. Every house, or every hamlet, had places of this sort, so that no ordure was seen on the ground. The refuse of their meals, the litter and other dirt, was also put in regular heaps, which they probably made use of as manure. These Indians were at that time farther advanced in this article of police than a nation which is one of the most considerable in Europe. In the year 1760 there was not a privy in all Madrid, the capital of Spain, though the city was plentifully supplied with water. Before this epoch, the inhabitants used to throw at night all their filth from their windows into the streets, and a number of men were employed to remove it to the extremity of the lower part of the city, where it remained till it was dried, and was then loaded in carts and disposed of out of the gates of the city. The king, having resolved to abolish this custom, made an edict, by which every proprietor of a house was commanded to build places for the purpose, and that sewers, sinks, and drains, should be made, and kept in repair at the expence of the public. The Spaniards

looked on this regulation as an infringement of the common rights of men, and strongly resisted its being put in force. Every class of the citizens made some objection to the edict. The physicians remonstrated, and asserted, that if the ordure was not thrown out as usual into the streets, that distempers would infallibly ensue: they pretended that the human body would absorb the putrid particles of the air, which were attracted by those ordures. This opinion, embraced by most of those who were proprietors, decided the situation of the privies in the houses. They believed that the mass of ordure would prevent the particles of foul air from fixing on other substances; they therefore have their privies near their kitchens, that their victuals may be kept wholesome.

A great part of the poor inhabitants of Majorca live in a sort of cellars, or caves, where there is neither light nor air, except from the entrance. They are generally damp, and the want of fresh air add to the unhealthiness of these cavities. From this cause proceeds an infinite number of distempers and sudden deaths; and, in the winter, the inhabitant shuts himself up in his den, lights the fire in his brasier, and endeavours to find comfort in a place where he only meets his destruction from the vapours which have no vent.

CHAP. IV.

SITUATION—EXTENT—COAST—AND ANCHORAGE OF THE ISLAND OF MINORCA.

MINORCA is the second of the Balearic Isles. It takes its name from its lesser size; it runs W. N. W. and E. N. E. describing a parallelogram. From the Cape to la Mola, the E. N. E. to that of Minorca de Ciutadella, they count at least 25 miles in length; the width of the island varies from eight to 12 miles. Minorca is situated to the E. N. E. of Majorca. The strait which separates them in the point where the shores are nearest, is at most two miles and a quarter wide. From Mont Toro de Minorca, the highest point in the island, and from Cape de Ciutadella, the land of Majorca is plainly discerned. The distance to the nearest point of the shores of Catalonia is estimated to be about 145 miles N. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. of Buges, in Africa. They

reckon 180 miles north. Minorca is in the latitude $40^{\circ} 41' 45''$, and $10^{\circ} 42' 15''$ longitude east of Cadiz.

The island of Minorca is in general level, and has only one mountain of an extraordinary height: this mountain, called Mont Toro, is situated in the middle of the island, which it overlooks on every side. The principal ports of Minorca are those of Mahon to the east, of Fornels to the north, and of Ciutadella to the west.

The most conspicuous points and promontories are the point des Corps, the cape of Artuck, the cape of Minorca or Bayoli, the point la Sella, cape Caballeria, of Naucelles; that of Tavaritx, and cape la Mola, of Mahon; between these there are other points and promontories that do not project near so far into the sea.

To enter the port of Mahon with the wind abaft, we must keep the middle of the passage till we have doubled the point Phillipet, which we leave to the starboard, and to the larboard the point on which was built the famous castle of Saint-Phillipet. When they have doubled these two points, ships of the largest size may range the coast on each side the port. The soundings are five fathoms near the shore, and increases to twelve and eighteen in the middle of the port. However, they generally make their course to the south, as they pass between the shore and the island on which the Lazaretto is built.

In making the road Pedrera, in a ship or frigate, it is absolutely necessary to keep to the south, and between the southern shore and the Isles de Rè, or of the Isle of Hospital, and of the Redonda, which is only a small island. Ships may also pass between this island and that of the Lazaretto; but although five fathoms are found in the northern part of this little strait, it is so narrow, that it requires a perfect knowledge of the passage to venture through it. To the E. N. E. of the island, there is a shoal with twenty-four feet of water only, upon which ships have grounded that have anchored to the south of this shoal.

With the wind at south, and having doubled the Isle of the Hospital and the small island, vessels are safe in port, and may remain close in shore on either side, at the distance of about half a cable's length, as far as the southern part of the island, on which is erected the machine to masts the ships. The anchorage is here seven or eight fathoms, good bottom mooring, across north-east and south-west.

Entering with the wind N. E. N. W. and S. W. it is necessary to take care and avoid a shoal which runs out to the south from the point of the Moka, about the third of a cable's length; at this distance the soundings are four fathoms; but a little far-

ther out there is a good bottom. There is another shoal which runs out above half a cable's length to the south-east of the point Phillipet; at this distance the bottom is four or five fathoms. Another shoal to the E. N. E. from the point of the castle of Saint-Philip, runs out half a cable's length. With ever so little sea, the breakers of these three shoals are seen, from their beginning half way across; but if there is a heavy sea, the breakers are observed the whole length; so that viewing the three points sideways, the entrance of the port appears only one continued reef.

Near the middle of that part of the point where the castle of St. Philip was built, which place is called the Redon, there is another shoal which runs out to sea, about the third of a cable's length; the breakers are only seen when the wind blows fresh N. and N. E.; and when it is S. W. the entrance is unsafe. When the wind is too strong to get within these shoals, there is good anchorage on the outside of them, of 25 and 30 fathom, good bottom; but it must be observed, that there is here a high sea when the wind is north.

The Cape Mola, to the N. E. of the mouth of the harbour, is a high perpendicular promontory; at the foot of which are three rocks that may be approached without fear; the bottom clean.

N. N. W. quarter W. a mile and three quarters from the Mola, is Cape Negro, thus named from its blackish appearance; it is not very high, and does not project far. Between the Mola and another small point, is a creek called Los Freos; near the land are several rocks.

N. W. from Cape Negro, are two small creeks, called the Old and New Mesquitas; these are of no use. In front are two small rocks, called Mesquita and Bombarda, which resemble two vessels sunk. The creek which is most to the south is not clean, and with ever so little sea the breakers are seen.

On this part of the coast the bottom is stony, and nothing but a case of necessity would make any one anchor here; where, even in summer, they run the risk of losing their anchors; and in winter of being shipwrecked.

To the north of the Mesquita is the roadstead to Benillanti, and the points la Galere and of Bufera, not at all remarkable.

At about three quarters of a mile from Bufera, is seen the island of Colóns; it is of some height, and forms with the coast a canal, through which only fishermen's boats can pass. At its eastern and southern points are two smaller islands, and a shoal which runs a cable's length into the sea, having only two

fathom of water; all the rest of the island of Coloms is clean. In the western part there is an anchorage, called Seselanes, proper for vessels of a moderate burthen. Before anchoring, a vessel must make a little island near the land, called Arenal del Mbro, which after having passed, and left to the larboard, it may moor in six or seven fathoms; with an anchor to the N. W. and carrying an hawser ashore to the S. E. In this anchorage vessels are protected from every wind except the N. W. which brings a great deal of sea; but they ride safely with good cables. Ships may anchor also in the S. E. part of the island with an anchor to the S. E. and by carrying an hawser to the N. W. upon the island. The bottom in this place is sandy, and there is six or seven fathoms. It is protected from every wind except from the E. N. E. to the E. S. E. which raise a high sea, enough to endanger small craft, which ride more safely in the port of Grace, a little bay, which goes in shore to the W. S. W. where two points form the mouth of it: there are two shoals, so that in entering, care must be taken to keep the middle of the passage: it is guarded from every wind, but there is little holding ground.

To anchor to the S. E. of the island of Coloms, it must be remembered, that near the shore, at the southern point of the anchorage, there is a little island, called Juida, between which and the coast there is only a passage for small boats. This island must be left to the larboard, and, after having doubled it, a point of land is observed, called Fray Bernat, where immediately begins the beach; before arriving at which is the anchorage.

At a mile and a half to the N. N. W. of the island of Coloms is Cape Musegne Vivés; it is high and steep, but does not go far into the sea. To the E. N. E. of this cape a shoal runs out near three quarters of a mile, having but six fathoms at the extremity. The coast then forms a large cove, or creek, almost as far as cape Tavaritz.

This cape is low at the extremity: seen from the distance of three leagues at sea; it has the appearance of three small islands; it juts out considerably, and the land raises gradually from the extremity of the cape.

Three miles and a half to the W. one quarter N. W. of Cape Tavaritz, are the isles and port of Adala, and the roadstead of Molins.

The greater island of Adala runs N. E. and S. W.; the smaller, which is the lower, N. and S. The first is a little mountainous on the northern side, but the two others are very level. To go into the port of Adala, ships must make the western shore, which is called Noucous: this coast is clean. Thus all the

islands are left to the ~~starboard~~, and having doubled that which is in the middle of the port, they anchor in four fathoms, opposite the mouth of the creek Molins, which is to the west of the little interior island. If they would go farther into the port of Adaja, which hardly merits the name of a harbour, and the mouth which is very narrow, and will only admit small vessels, they pass the small interior island, and may then moor in any part. This port runs in shore about a mile to the S. E. ; it has seven fathoms water at the entrance ; but at the distance of a cable's length toward the shore of Npucous, it decreases to three fathoms. It has four fathoms at the mouth of the creek of Molins.

To the south-east of the greater island, at about half a cable distance, is another small round island, called Aguila.

The port of Fomels is perfectly sheltered, and can receive into its harbour vessels of every size. The mouth is narrow but clean, having from 17 to 20 fathoms of water.

There are numerous other creeks and harbours on this coast, of little consequence to navigators, as none but small craft can find anchorage in them.

CHAP. V.

DESCRIPTION OF THE TOWN OF MAHON AND THE SURROUNDING COUNTRY.

THE island of Minorca is divided into four small provinces, or districts, called *Terminos*. The first of these has Mahon for its principal town. Its territory is surrounded by the sea on three sides, and terminates on the side of the land at Alayor. Its population, which is from 16 to 18,000 souls, is distributed in the town of Mahon ; the suburb of Saint Charles, called Ravalle Neuf ; the villages of Saint Louis, Biniatup, and about one hundred and forty farms, or country houses. Mahon, the principal town of this district, is at the same time the capital of the island, a prerogative which is disputed by the town of Ciutadella ; this rivalry, founded on ridiculous pretensions, has been hurtful to the general good.

Mahon is built on the shore, to the left of the entrance into the port, and is seated on high rocks ; it overlooks two harbours, and has a sufficiently picturesque appearance. Owing to its elevation, the inhabitants of the town enjoy a wholesome atmo-

sphere, and they are there less tormented with musquitoes than in the rest of the island. This species of insect abounds during the heat of the summer, and its sting occasions a great deal of smart and inflammation.

Several of the rocks which support the city of Mahon, being hollowed beneath the habitations, have a frightful appearance to a spectator, who imagines at every instant the immense fragments, undermined by the ocean, falling with a dreadful crash, and overturning every thing in their way. One cannot help lamenting the indifference of the Mahonese to the dangers with which they are daily threatened: nothing can be more astonishing than the security which the inhabitants of such miraculously suspended tenements seem to entertain.

The court of Spain has, however, given orders that these dangerous rocks should be blown up; but, like many others, those orders were never obeyed. Thus, the wisest intentions of the government are but too often of no effect, owing to the interested conduct of a few individuals, particularly in those parts which are so remote from the eye of the sovereign.

The houses are generally built with some neatness and taste, but ill contrived and inconvenient within. Some of them are tiled; others have a flat roof like a terrace. The material of which these terraces are made is also used for the floors of the apartments: it consists of a very strong kind of fossil cement. Almost all the houses have vaulted cellars. In digging these subterranean apartments, they find large stones, which are used in building the houses.

The thickness of these arches varies according to the weight they have to support; they are always begun at the four corners of the space intended to be covered. The method of supporting them while they are making is very curious: the workmen do not make use of arched stays, or props, that the vault may be made with any particular exactness, but they owe the ease with which they complete their work to the nature of the cement, which serves instead of those helps that in other countries must be resorted to. After having hewn, with care, the stone they are about to use, they place it where it is to remain, and support it in the air with a simple pole; they then put mortar round the joints, leaving a hole on the top to receive the cement, which is kept in a fluid state, that it may spread instantly into every crevice. One of the properties of this cement is to harden immediately, and to fasten strongly; the stones being thus united, the pole, or support, is no longer necessary, and is removed under another stone. The vault is thus finished in very little time. When they are tiling the roofs of the houses, they raise

on the middle of that part which is to be the loft, a light beam, on which is placed the upper ends of the rafters, while the lower ends rest on the side walls. These rafters are placed about two feet distant from each other, and are almost always crooked and knotty, as they make use of the growth of the country, which produces but little wood that is fit for carpenter's work. They do not use laths, but fill up the spaces between the rafters with a sort of reeds, which grow in the island in great abundance, and which much resembles those used in the manufacture of cloth. These reeds, bound together, answer the purpose of laths extremely well, and they are of great durability. Nevertheless, they do not form a body strong enough or close enough to place the tiles on; these defects are remedied by spreading over them a bed of clay: when this is dry, it is tiled and finished. The form of these tiles is singular; they are first formed in the shape of a pipe, or tunnel, a little bigger at one end than the other; they are then cut through the middle, lengthways, which makes two tiles. They are placed, first a range on the convex side, laying the upper tile about two or three inches over the edge of the under one; thus the hollow part of these tiles are uppermost; they then put another range with the concave side undermost, so that they lock one in another. All the joinings are then filled up with the mortar. The roofs have only as much slope as is necessary to let the rain-water run off.

The stone is of an excellent quality; it is easily hewn, and becomes much harder as it is exposed to the air. They are not obliged to dig deep for this stone; it is found in great plenty near the surface of the earth, and is taken out in pieces which they call *cantons*, that are two feet in length by one in width and height. This stone is not liable to split, and is consequently well suited for fortifications.

Fire-stone is also very abundant and equally good.

The cement that I have already mentioned, is called *guisch*. It is a kind of gypsum, of rather a greyish colour; it is of a moderate hardness, more or less transparent, according as it is found whiter or greyer; it is extracted from the earth by means of pits dug a little distance one from the other. It is calcined before it is used, and it is tempered in a quantity of water, according to the use for which it is intended; its contact with the water occasions a violent fermentation, which abates by little and little.

The Minorcans have followed the English manner of making their windows slide with two sashes, one sliding up on the other, which, as only one half can be open at a time, prevents the free circulation of the air: the frames are generally loosened in the

grooves, and have another great inconvenience attending them, for, with ever so little wind, the play of the frames occasions a disagreeable noise; and they are obliged to fix them with little wedges, which they place between the groove and the frame; while there are always openings through which the air finds a way, which is very uncomfortable in the winter season.

The Minorcans have adopted the use of chimneys, but the greater part of them are badly built and very subject to smoke. The Spanish hearth is preferred to them, as it is more economical in a country not abounding with fire-woods.

The luxury of wainscots or hangings has not yet found its way to Minorca; they content themselves with white-washing their rooms, which they also adorn with pictures and engravings. I believe farther, that this custom is congenial with the warm climate of the country. The naked walls give an agreeable freshness, which the islanders prefer to the decorations which would deprive them of it.

Every house has cisterns cut in the rock, and lined with an excellent cement. The water which falls on the leads is conducted thither by pipes. After the rains, they let the first shower run off, which is loaded with all the dirt of the leads and terraces. When the cistern is full, they leave the water some time to settle before using it. To purify it, they throw into the cistern three or four live eels, or sometimes they use a little broom made of sprigs of green myrtle. If these methods, which ordinarily succeed, be insufficient, they have recourse to emptying the cistern to clean it: these cisterns are generally of a spherical form.

The people of Mahon value themselves particularly for cleanliness and neatness in their houses: one of the principal occupations of their servants is to whiten the exterior, and to scower the stairs and floor, at least once in the week.

Mahon does not contain any public building that is worthy the notice of the traveller.

The governor's house, built on the rocks which surround the port, has nothing extraordinary. The apartments are of a good size, but so badly contrived that most of them are scarcely habitable. They have been built by different governors, who have successively inhabited the mansion, and who consulted only the convenience of the moment. The secretary, who has apartments in this building, generally prefers hiring a house for himself, or apartments in the town.

The town-hall is a small building, having a ground floor and one story; the last is composed of a kind of vestibule, and a large hall with three balcony windows next the street. Over the front, which has nothing remarkable, is placed a clock. There

is a flight of stone steps up to the entrance, which has an iron gate. That part of the building which is level with the ground, is the prison, and the habitation of the gaoler. This place of confinement is very small, very damp, and very unwholesome. Of those who are so unhappy as to be kept there for ever so short a space of time, few leave the place without rheumatic pains, or other distempers, very difficult to be cured. This gaol, originally designed only for those suspected or accused, but not condemned, is really a place of punishment, where the sufferings of the prisoners are increased by the cruelty and rapaciousness of those inhuman beings who have the charge and care of them.

Besides the parish church, there are at Mahon three monasteries. The first, of Carmelites, was founded in 1690; the second belongs to friars of the order of St. Francis, and was built in the year 1459. The Capuchins inhabit the third. They settled at Mahon in the year 1623. I visited the two first of these convents, but found nothing worth describing; the third is a retreat inaccessible to all but the inhabitants.

Mahon has also an hospital, which was founded about forty years back; it is exclusively for the relief of the Minorcans, and may contain fifty or sixty patients, who are attended by men under the direction of a physician and surgeon, who are paid by the city. The apothecary's shop is small and ill provided with drugs; but the greatest misfortune is the extreme ignorance of the practitioner. The negligence of every thing that can afford mitigation of the sufferings of the sick, is inconceivable. The first that offers himself is employed as doctor, if he has the address, on his debut, to cure a patient by leaving him entirely to nature and the goodness of his own constitution, his reputation is established, and from thenceforward he may trifle with the lives of his fellow-citizens with impunity, and rob them at the same time. Those who prepare the medicines ordered by these pretended Esculapii, are not less to be feared, as they sometimes add deception to ignorance, of which I can give an instance from my own experience. I was recovering from a serious illness; there only remained a degree of fever, for which I was ordered to take bark. A friend made me a present of a packet of this drug, of a very superior quality; I sent it to an apothecary to reduce it to powder, and divide it into equal parts. My gentleman would not lose so fine an opportunity of getting a good name for his shop; he appropriated my bark to cure his town patients, and sent me some in place of it that was good for nothing. I was obliged to the generosity of my friend for a

second supply, or probably I might have endured my fever for a considerable time.

Mahon has no public establishment for education. The young of both sexes are left to themselves. For certainly a few bad schools do not merit the name of seminaries;—where the most ignorant school-masters and monks teach as much wrong as right in the grammatical lessons of children, and pretend to explain the classic authors, which very often they themselves do not understand. Most part of the time of the class is spent in repeating, in a drawling tone, the rosary and some other prayers. This is what they call forming the minds of youth. Neither can one give the title of schools to those places where old devotees teach young girls to read, sew, or knit; all the accomplishments they themselves possess. Most part of the time is spent at prayers. It is impossible for a stranger to imagine how very deficient the people of Minorca are of every means to cultivate the minds of youth, although the place has successively, and for a great number of years, belonged to two of the most enlightened nations of Europe. All that the Mahonese have retained of the customs of the English, consists in giving a more agreeable exterior to their habitations, and in altering their simple but characteristic costume. Unfortunately, they have but too well copied part of the vices and follies of the nation which they took for a model.

At the time when Toulon was re-taken by the republicans, part of the inhabitants of that unfortunate city was obliged to seek safety in flight, and many families took refuge at Mahon. The arrival of these new neighbours presented a resource to the islanders. They might have profited by the talents and intelligence of their unhappy visitors, by offering them, in their misfortunes, an honourable means of earning a livelihood. I ought here to acknowledge, that the Mahonesé have not to reproach themselves with the neglect of putting to use, in the instruction of their children, these resources, as valuable as unexpected. But the voice of authority was opposed to this inclination; and there are only a few rich individuals who made choice of instructors from among these emigrants, and confided to them the education of the young branches of their families.

The streets of Mahon are generally narrow and crooked: most of them are steep and paved with flint stones, which makes them very uneasy to the walker, particularly when it rains.

There are not any public promenades; for it would be an abuse of the term, to give the name to a small walk, planted with trees, at the lower end of the town, on the strand of the port.

This walk is called the *Alameda*. The trees do not decay, for the sea air and the north winds insensibly cause their decay; and they are left without the least cure. There is in this walk a large cistern, from which the neighbouring inhabitants are supplied with water. There is also a watering place for horses. The *Alameda* is but little frequented. the preference is generally given to a walk in the fields, or on the shore of the port.

The city of Mahon was formerly surrounded with a wall. There are still to be seen some remains of one of the gates; it is now within the city, and serves as entrance to one of the new streets, called the Old *Ravalle*, to distinguish it from the New *Ravalle*, which is a suburb situated on the road to Mahon, at Port St. Charles. These remains of the wall belong to the time when Minorca was subject to the Moors.

The parade is large, and forms a square, with irregular houses on three sides, and on the fourth the barracks, a tolerable handsome building, two stories high; in the front of which is a long court, made use of to call together the troops, and to examine the arms and accoutrements. Before this court is a row of trees stunted in growth, as in general they do not thrive in this island. The barracks are divided into small rooms, each of which may contain about twenty men. At the back of these are the kitchens, separated from the body of the building by another court, or yard. Twelve hundred men may be lodged in these barracks, which would be more complete if they had added a residence for the officers. It stands on uneven ground, an inconvenience which might easily be remedied, and which alteration would make the troops appear with more regularity when under arms.

The detachment of cavalry, stationed at Mahon, are quartered, and have their stables, in an old building in the heart of the city: this habitation is dreadfully gloomy.

The artillery is divided into different corps, which keep guard at the batteries of the fort.

The port of Mahon is undoubtedly one of the surest and safest in the Mediterranean, and can contain a very numerous fleet. In this harbour are four small islands, very near the shore, on the right of the entrance. The first is called the *Isle du Roi*, which name, according to the tradition of the country, is acquired from king Don Alphonso landing at that place, when he came to attack the island of Minorca, in the year 1287. The size of this island is about three acres. In 1714, Sir J. Yemmings, the commander of the English fleet in the Mediterranean, built here a hospital for the navy, that which is now on the spot was begun in the year 1772, and finished in 1776, and cost four hundred thousand pounds. It is the reception of both soldiers and

sailors. This edifice stands in a very advantageous situation; is large, very airy, and forms three sides of a handsome square court: these three sides are separate buildings. The two lateral sides are terminated by two small houses, which are divided into separate rooms; these houses have each a small garden; one of them is the residence of the governor of the hospital, and the office for business. In the other is the apothecary's shop and surgery, and five apartments for the officers of health. Opposite the hospital are two small buildings, where the bedding, linen, &c. &c. are kept. Behind these is another, which is divided into two long rooms, where bedsteads and other goods and utensils are deposited.

At the time of the arrival of the Spanish squadron, commanded by M. de Langara, coming from Toulon after its evacuation by the English, this general brought and placed here nearly three hundred sick persons.

The hospital is rather damp: three wells dug in the court supply it with water. The sick are divided into thirty-six small wards, each containing thirteen or fourteen beds; but there is room enough for twice the number. Each sick person has a bed to himself, and they are distributed according to the nature of their complaints. A covered gallery, supported by pillars, surround the building. On the centre of the front is a clock. The surgery is small but convenient; the kitchens, and offices belonging to them, appear to me to be on rather too small a scale; according to the size of the hospital, and want several conveniences; for example, there is no bakehouse. I tasted the soup, bread, wine, &c. and found them much better than I expected.

This hospital, at the time I visited it, was almost stripped of every thing. The English, in evacuating Minorca, had only left there the portrait of Commodore Harrison and Rear Admiral Peters, which were placed in one of the wards. The Spaniards did not think proper to preserve these two paintings.

The Intendant of Balears, on his arrival at Mahon, set about establishing this hospital. He found it without any funds, and proposed to a person to furnish the necessaries for the use of the establishment, at a certain price. This individual, who had supplied the hospital before the last invasion of the island by the English, refused to accept the proposal; offering, at the same time, to provide every thing from his own proper purse, without interest for three months. The proposition was accepted. His generosity appeared to me to be an ingenious speculation. It had been indeed a very rare example of singular virtue in a man, who had acquired a fortune without any truly surprising, or believe that he was thus making a sort of restitution; rather

think the motive of his zeal might be the hope of recompense in some shape or other.

Almost opposite the island of the hospital, and on that side of the port where the town is situated, is a cavity called the oyster cavern, because of the quantity of oysters found there; it is hollowed out of the rock, exposed to the N. E. and sheltered from the sun. The coolness of this place during the summer, engages many parties to make promenades thither, where they are amused by the fishing for oysters, which is generally done by Spanish seamen. The work requires two of them; one strips and fastens a hammer to his right hand, makes the sign of the cross, recommends himself to his patron saint, and throws himself into the sea. He dives sometimes ten or twelve fathoms to find the oysters by the help of his hammer, loosens from the rock as many as he can bring up on his left arm; then striking with his foot, he ascends to the surface of the water. His companion then takes his place, and performs the same manoeuvre. They sometimes use other methods of fishing for oysters: in those places which are not so deep, the fisherman is armed with a long pole, at the end of which is fixed a kind of pincers, the lower piece of which is steady while the other part moves; it is put in action by means of a string, or cord, fastened to its extremity. The fisherman pulls this cord to lay fast hold of the oyster which he has rested on the under part of his pincers; by this method he brings up in an easier manner a larger quantity than can be obtained by the first mentioned method. These oysters are of two different qualities, red and white; the first are bad, but the last are excellent. They find also, in the same place, a kind of shell-fish, called *dâtes*, I suppose from the Greek word *dactylos*, finger, because of its form; they are separated with a hammer from the rocks, which appear almost on a level with the water.

On the second small island is built the Quarantine, a small edifice of two stories; the first of which is composed of store-rooms, shut with wooden gratings, to air the merchandise, which is there deposited. The second is divided into divers apartments for the accommodation of the passengers. A snabby hut serves as an apartment for the officers of health. This quarantine can receive but few goods, and a small number of people: those only are admitted who have letters of health.

The ships performing quarantine anchor near the island.

On the third island, which joins the land of Minorca by a small neck of sand, that is almost always covered by the waves, is the Lazaretto, where passengers and merchandises are only ad-

mitted, arriving from countries suspected of being attacked by the plague, or other contagious distempers.

It is about twenty years since this establishment was begun, on a very large scale, which promised to embrace every advantage that the situation of the port of Mahon offered. In 1804, here was only the fourth part of it built; nevertheless, there was already room for a considerable quantity of merchandize, and as convenient for a large number of passengers. The want of funds interrupted the work several times, and prevented this Lazaretto from being finished, which, had the original plan been entirely completed, would have been, without contradiction, one of the finest in the Mediterranean.

The English troops destined for the last expedition to Egypt, having joined at Minorca, lodged in this half-finished Lazaretto near three thousand men. They only added a prison to that part which was already built by the Spaniards.

This establishment certainly will help to draw the island of Minorca from its present languid state. Its commercial connections cannot be much increased, as it has no produce to give in exchange for those articles which they have from other countries. Nature seems to have made amends to this island for the want of local wealth, by ports, which being the resort of every commercial nation in the Mediterranean, must necessarily become to the Minorcans a source of ease and plenty.

Spain with all her maritime possessions, has not a single Lazaretto. Her ships coming from the Levant, or from America, when the yellow fever or plague rages, are obliged to perform quarantine at Marseilles, Leghorn, or Malta. The Lazaretto at Mahon saves a considerable expense to commerce and Spanish navigation; at any rate, it is more natural that these sums should be expended in a port belonging to the same kingdom. The establishment of this Lazaretto should have been accompanied by the circumstance of making the port free. It would have been the most certain means of preventing the loss to which they are still liable, by the clandestine introduction of foreign merchandize. This privilege would, at the same time, draw to Mahon the merchantmen who traffic on this coast. They might thus insensibly establish a commerce of re-exportation, of which this port would be the mart. As in good policy, the freedom and good of the people are the true riches of a kingdom, I do not think the government of Spain would have to regret the sacrifice of the duties which deducts from the commerce of an island, whose connections and resources are so confined. The Minorcans desire this advantage, but their hopes are opposed by the rivalry of those Spanish ports which are contiguous; and more par-

ticularly by those of the Majorcans. These selfish neighbours, consulting only their own individual interest, forgetting the general convenience of the merchants of every nation, which was the chief object of the erection of the Lazaretto at Mahon, see nothing in this establishment but the cause of the destruction of their trade. Mahon, as a free port, would present advantages to navigators which might induce them to neglect those places to which they usually carry their goods, and which would then only receive them at second hand. Fear gave birth to the desire of seeing the port of Mahon always full. They insist on the specious argument, that that measure could alone insure them the peaceable possession of an island always regarded with a wishful eye by the powers of the North; alike jealous of extending their power in the Mediterranean. They calculate on the facility with which Minorca has successively been subjugated by the English and the French, and particularly by the first of them; for whom they tax the Mahonese with an attachment bordering on fanaticism. Would it be believed, that a conduct so fatal to the general good of Minorca, should be entertained even by a part of its inhabitants? Would it be believed, that the citizens of Ciutadella have had the folly to oppose the solicitations of the Mahonese for a benefit, the advantages of which they would have shared? Would it be believed, that proceedings as unpatriotic as absurd, were occasioned by jealousy that is really pitiable? that of antient Ciutadella, which, from its situation, has no consequence, being alarmed at the future prosperity of a rival; which would, by means of those advantages, become the capital of the island; a prerogative which they have constantly contended for.

Could vain and ridiculous declamations prevent the natural effects resulting from the excellence of its local situation, so well adapted to draw thither merchants, seamen, and strangers, would not this city inevitably become the residence of the principal officers of the government, and the seat of the different tribunals? This rivalry has long appeared to me to be a mere chimera, which I should never have believed to have existed, if I had not had repeated proofs of it from my own observation. However, demonstration will always, in the end, convince the most obstinate. The magistrates of Ciutadella are at last united to those of Mahon, and of other municipalities. They, in 1804, renewed their joint solicitation, to accelerate the finishing the Lazaretto of Mahon. The arrival of divers vessels of the Spanish king, in this port, with crews attacked by the yellow fever, and obliged to perform quarantine, furnished them with a favourable occasion, by which they have wisely profited.

The ravages of the contagion which prevailed in Spain, have

induced the government to assign the necessary funds to complete this Lazaret, the indispensable necessity of which has been established. This establishment may now be used, but they should not any longer defer appointing the officers of health.

For want of proper care, I have seen two persons die in this Lazaretto, one of whom was a general officer, and this at the time when they had reason to fear the communication of the yellow fever. These deaths spread the alarm in the city; and it was with difficulty that the fears raised on the occasion were made to subside, and the suspicion removed, that the calamity was caused by the yellow fever. The fact was, that they had neglected sending any physician.

Opposite to the side of the Lazaretto, on the left shore of the port, is the town of St. Charles, or the New Ravalle, it is entirely inhabited by seafaring men, who live by fishing on the coasts of the island. There is here nothing worthy of note, except the barracks, which are built with stone. The three sides of these barracks, with the common house, or hall, form a square, where a battalion can exercise. These barracks are on a larger plan, and better built, than those of the city. There are two houses or pavillions, for the officers. The barracks will contain three thousand foot-soldiers. The English built behind the common house, above the shore of the port, another part, of one story, and about two hundred feet in length, where two hundred men may be lodged.

The Ravalle is situated half way from Mahon to the castle of St. Charles, at present there only remains the place where was situated this fortress, formerly so famous under the name of St. Philip. At the time I visited the castle, in the month July, in the year 1801, there only remained the rubbish of the ancient fortifications, and the mines hollowed under all the extent of the fort. In 1805, the blowing up of these mines were finished. I went through several of them, and they gave me a complete idea of the strength and extent of the works which composed the fort of St. Philip. All these mines communicated one with another: several outlets, on the side next the sea, facilitated the entrance of reinforcements of troops, and of supplies of provisions and ammunition. The English, when they last invaded the island of Minorca, raised some works on the sea-side; but this was only a line properly fortified, to defend or obstruct the entrance of vessels into the port, and capable of sustaining a siege. I saw only twenty-four pieces of cannon, which were twenty-four pounders, mounted on 11 in carriages. These formed two batteries on the side next the sea, the fire of which crosses that of a tower, called St. Philipet, situated on the right of the port,

having above, a swivel with a large bore, and below, a battery of four or five pieces, level with the water's edge. I saw scattered here and there between some heaps of balls and bombs of different sizes, several pieces of artillery out of service. I found the several magazines entirely stripped, and even much damaged. The English, as soon as they received orders to give up the island of Minorca to the Spaniards, sold every thing, even to a small stock of fire-wood and coals, which the inhabitants of the *valle* bought for almost nothing. The extent of the ground, on which was the ancient fort of St. Phillippe, is at least a league in circumference. The plan of the court of Spain seems to be to leave only a few simple batteries to protect the entrance of the port. They consist of 23 pieces of 18 and 24 pounders, the fire of which crosses that of the tower and battery of Phillipper, which are on the opposite shore. Of all the buildings enclosed in fort St. Phillippe, there remain only some small magazines in a bad state, which serve as guard-houses to the garrison. There is still to be seen a handsome quarter, which is inhabited, near the cove St. Stephen, whither the supplies are brought in, which arrive by sea.

From the batteries at St. Charles begins a carriage road, which goes through the whole length of the island, and ends at the city of Ciudadella. This road which is the only one in Minorca, is the work of Brigadier Canó; the memory of this English governor is preserved by an inscription engraved on the pedestal of an obelisk which stands on this road as you leave Mahon.

At the time when the English came to invade Minorca in 1798, they made themselves sure of meeting very little resistance from the Spaniards; in fact, they effected their landing on a most inconvenient part of the coast, and where they could only get into the island by passing through a narrow neck of land, where the way was very difficult, particularly for the artillery: two hundred men would have been sufficient to oppose them from the heights which are on each side this passage. I have myself been on the spot; where I learnt that the English, whose number was scarcely three thousand, entered without the least resistance on the part of a garrison which consisted of near six thousand Spaniards, not a single musket was fired: the governor in the end capitulated.

From the facility with which the English became possessed of Minorca, some people, ready to attribute every misfortune, without reflection, to the defects or faults of the Government, seemed to doubt whether the loss of Minorca was occasioned more by the inactivity of the Governor and commanders of the

garrison, and the consequent resulting from the machination of the ministers.

There is no doubt of the taking of Minorca at this epoch having been a *coup de main* the English themselves confess without dissimulation, that they were uneasy at the apparent destination of some troops which had joined in the island of Majorca. The intention of Spain seemed to be effectively to attack at that time, to repossess themselves of an island so important to their interests.

At the epoch of the restitution of Minorca to the Spaniards, according to the treaty of Amiens, M. de Vivès, the Governor general of the Balearic islands was ordered to take possession of this isle. The general, in his eagerness to execute his commission, thought it his duty to sacrifice to the interests of his sovereign, every consideration of decorum. He therefore embarked in a merchant ship, hired at the moment, and took with him about four hundred men of the garrison of Majorca, in some shabby boats. It would probably have been more in character, in the eyes of the English, if this general had made his appearance, attended only by a division of the marines, and the islanders would have been of the same opinion.

They also neglected, as soon as the treaty of peace was concluded, to send commissioners to protect with peculiar care every thing which belonged to the place, and the different ports in the island, from which neglect the arsenal and all the magazines were completely stripped. The English admiral whose duty it was to give up the island, had already embarked all the artillery, and it was not without difficulty that the Spanish general obtained its restitution. The matter was negotiated before his departure by an officer who understood the English language, who was sent from Palma to remain there until the restitution of the island.

The arsenal of Mahon is built on the fourth of the small islands inclosed by the port; it is almost circular, situated high up on the front of the Down with which it communicates by a wooden bridge on the side of the island of Minorca. This little isle is inclosed by walls with square towers. The arsenal contains several storehouses for cables, cordage, anchors, sails, masts, in one word for every thing incidental to a naval equipment. The marine commandant and the officers of the different departments in the arsenal. The ships can careen on a great part of one at this place, and are laid down on a little mole, where the necessary capsterns for the purpose are placed; the ships can go near enough to lay alongside of the sheer, and when necessary such vessel is placed at the end of

the mole, several boat houses, built on piles, are made use of to lay up the little armed cutters and other small vessels.

At a little distance from the arsenal, and upon the shore to the right of the port, are stocks for building ships. The arsenal of Mahon is at this day in the state in which it was left by the English when it was restored to the Spaniards; that is to say, in a state of the most complete destitution. A vessel which had suffered, whether by a storm or by an engagement, could not be supplied with the smallest articles for repair. They are obliged to wait for them from the arsenal at Carthagena, the nearest port. The port of Mahon ought, however, at least to be able to provide sails, jury-masts, cables, anchors, pitch, tar, &c. &c. to supply the principal wants of the service. It is not to be doubted, but that the Mahonese could avail themselves with facility of the greater part of the advantages which the port of Mahon presents; whether by its situation, its size, or the safety of its harbour. Mahon was formerly a military depot; the Mahonese were acknowledged as good ship builders; several of the best frigates in the service of Spain were launched from the dock-yards of Mahon. The works of the arsenal employed a great number of excellent mechanics, and afforded food to numerous families, plunged at this day in the greatest distress, from the want of employ, or who were compelled by necessity to expatriate themselves and pursue their habits of industry elsewhere. Every thing proves that it is as necessary, as it would be easy, to restore to Mahon its ancient activity.

Part of the arsenal has been used for the lodging of some of the garrison troops of the island. It would be an imposition on one's common sense, to believe that the neighbourhood of Carthagena occasions the neglect of port Mahon, which, in offering advantages, perhaps equal to the other, has likewise that of a most healthy climate.

The shores of the port Mahon form naturally a mole, which might be completed at small expence. There are built store-houses two stories high, the length of this mole, in which are deposited cables, masts, cordage, sails, &c. for the merchant ships. Here is also the office of health and the custom-house, neither of which offer any thing particular.

It is not a great many years since the largest ships of war could moor alongside the mole, so near as to place a ladder to the shore: insensibly the earth has drifted down thither by the rains. This inconvenience could be easily remedied by proper machines.

There are two different roads to go up to the town; the shortest is of an acclivity extremely fatiguing; in either road car,

riages cannot be made use of, and the merchandize is transported on the backs of mules : it would be difficult to remedy this inconvenience. The back part of the slaughter-houses is on the steepest of these mounts, and the blood and filth which is left, to run down, adds to the disagreeableness of the road, an infection which could be easily prevented.

On the heights of the hill which borders the right shore of the port, a little distance from the cape Mola, is erected the Signal Tower ; objects may be seen from it a great way, and it gives the number and description of the ships seen off the coast, by balls hoisted at the four angles of the tower, and by proper flags. This tower has a communication with Mount Toro, situated a little farther towards the center of the island : at night the signals are by fire, which are very imperfect, and easy to be understood by an enemy. They cannot afford particular intelligence, and are far behind the telegraph in celerity, and these last were established by the English on different points of the island ; the Spaniards, on its being restored, found them ready prepared to their hands ; but, under the pretext of not knowing how to work them, they had them taken down and put into the stores, where they have remained to perish. In circumstances like the present, when precision, celerity, and secret signals, were so essential, I proposed the restoration of the telegraph. They made less objection to the difficulty of finding intelligent and trusty people for the service required, than to the expence, although, assuredly, of little consideration in comparison with the use and intelligence of the telegraph.

The cape of the Mola is very high land, which is connected to the island by a tongue of sand, which it would be easy to separate, if it were wished to isolate the cape. To the north is a little bay ; it is surrounded on all sides by frightful and inaccessible precipices, with the exception of that part which looks to the port of Mahon. The cape of the Mola is very high on this side. The English masters of the island entertained the project of profiting by the advantages which the cape of Mola offered, to fortify it ; but the war with Spain gave them too much occupation to allow them to do more than think of it.

In reading the Memoirs of the Cardinal de Retz, one is astonished at the brilliant description which he gives of the port of Mahon : " Port Mahon," says this prelate, " is the finest in the Mediterranean. The mouth of it is very narrow, and I do not think that two galleys could pass it in rowing. It becomes wider of a sudden, and forms an oblong bason, half a league in length. Lofty mountains surround it on every side, forming a theatre, which, from the number and height of the

trees with which they are covered, and from the streams which rush from them in prodigious abundance, display a thousand and a thousand pictures, which are, without exaggeration, more enchanting than the scenery of the Opera. These mountains, trees, and rocks, shelter the port from the wind; and, in times of the greatest storms, it is always as calm as the basin of a fountain, and as smooth as ice. Minorca also produces more meat, and other provisions necessary for supplying the shipping, than Majorca does of pomegranates, oranges, and lemons. In this delightful place are all sorts of game, and abundance of fish."

It is a pity that the Cardinal de Retz, continuing to give scope to his imagination, has not given the picture of the palaces, edifices, arsenals, and temples, of the city of Mahon. The happy Minorca would have doubtless been much more admired than those famous islands which were the delightful abodes of Circe and Calypso. One can only lament that so many writers have alike imposed on the credulity of the public. Of the immense number of descriptions in travels and voyages which are daily read, two thirds are the productions of the fanciful imagination of authors who have depicted, with great effrontery, the riches, manners, religions, costumes, and governments, of countries which they have never seen. We punish with justice, the man who, taking advantage of the ignorance of the buyer, sells tinsel for gold. The daring falsehoods of authors appear to me equally deserving of reprehension.

The villages of Biniatp and Saint-Louis, depending on the district of Mahon, offer no interesting particulars to engage the notice of the traveller. On the feast of St. Louis there is, in the village of that name, a small fair; many of the inhabitants of Mahon and the environs, go thither on parties of pleasure.

CHAP. VI.

DISTRICT OF ALAYOR, MERCADAL, AND FERERIAS.

AT the distance of eight or nine miles to the east of Mahon is Alayor, the chief place of the second district of the island. This territory is bounded to the W. S. W. by the sea, and to the E. by the district of Mahon; in other parts it is surrounded by the districts of Mercadal and Férerias. It is said to be eight miles in length and seven in breadth. The population, which is

supposed to amount to above 4000 souls, is distributed in the little town or borough of Alayor, and in about 112 farms, or country habitations. Alayor is situated on the left of the great road which goes from one end to the other of the island, and about a mile distant. This town, which is the next most considerable to Mahon and Cintadella, is situated on a hill. The houses are well built; but the streets are narrow, crooked, and ill paved, and very fatiguing to foot-passengers. The parish church of Alayor is of Gothic architecture, and appears to be very ancient. There are but few wells in Alayor; but there is no want of cisterns, the waters of which are fresh and wholesome; an advantage which is possessed in a superior degree by the whole of this district. I went to see the common-hall, which presented nothing remarkable: I saw there the portraits of the Counts Cifuentés and de Lammion; this last, who was lieutenant-general in the French army, died in the island of Minorca, of which he was governor, in the year 1762. He was buried in a chapel belonging to the parish of Mahon: an epitaph in the Latin language, engraved on black marble, is enched in the wall above the sepulchre of this general. This marble was placed there by order of Louis the Fifteenth, in memory of his services.

The first building which attracts the notice of the traveller on entering Alayor, is a church, built with hewn stone: it is of very simple architecture on the outside; the interior, like the other churches is ornamented with paintings and sculpture; among the ornaments of the latter description, are distinguished the works of a sculptor, who, without any master but his own natural genius, or other models than the imperfect works of his own countrymen, has sculptured several altars which have considerable merit. There are some statues of his in wood, as large as life; the proportions of which are exact, and the attitudes natural and easy; he was well acquainted with the different orders of architecture, and excelled in the sculpture of the capitals; his taste was besides excellent in the ornamental part, the fruit and foliage.

There is at Alayor a little well-constructed barrack, which can contain from 250 to 225 men, and is assuredly one of the best garrisons in the island.

The infirm and sickly are received into an hospital, which, though of no considerable size, is sufficient for that part of the population of Alayor. In general, the inhabitants of Minorca, and above all, those of Mahon, consider as a calamity and degradation, even in the greatest indigence, the necessity of seeking a refuge in an hospital, which presents them comforts of which

they are deprived in the bosoms of their families. It is less offensive to their delicacy to go into a prison, and though for some trivial fault only, be mingled with the greatest miscreants. I had occasion to witness this singularity in the character of the Minorcais: one of these islanders made a formal complaint of me to government on this subject. Thrown into a dungeon, he had fallen sick, and I used every endeavour to get him removed from so unhealthy a place to facilitate his cure. It was in agitation to remove him to the hospital of the town, where he might have received every attention necessary to his situation. This determination, which I was in hopes would be a consolation to the islander, threw him into an excess of grief, which would certainly have increased his malady if I had not given up the idea, and allowed him to return to his miserable habitation, to encounter the risk of wanting every thing, or of receiving only assistance from charity. To determine a Minorcau to go to the hospital, he must actually have no other place to go to. It is difficult to understand to what this ridiculous and fatal delicacy is owing; for these unfortunate beings often expose themselves to the risk of perishing for want, the victims of their prejudices. I can more easily conceive their aversion for domestic servitude, above all with strangers, setting aside the *amour propre*, which prevails generally in the character of islanders: They do not consider servitude as a situation that leads to any thing; and in that they are nearly right. A young man cannot hope to marry if he has not an independent business; whilst his fortune depends on the caprice of a master, it is at best but precarious; thus it is with difficulty they find a voluntary servant. This branch of industry is reserved to the women only; they are in general but bad domestics for strangers unused to the customs of the place.

The inhabitants of the country can scarcely be persuaded to call in a physician until the last extremity, and often not until it is too late. I should not blame this prejudice, if it proceeded from the fear of falling into the hands of a quack, who would bring them to the grave, and not from the apprehension of incurring an expence, the sparing of which might cost their lives. In reflecting on the situation of the country people, and on what concerns their health, an idea occurred to my mind, on which I have always dwelt with particular satisfaction. Why, I have said to myself, abandon entirely to nature the most valuable part of the people? Why should not the ministers, who have the care of the souls of their parishioners, occupy themselves with watching over their health; their functions leave them plenty of leisure, and they could employ themselves to advantage in ob-

taining the first principles of a science which would enable them to arrest the progress of distempers that become incurable only from neglect. Should these pastors blush at resembling the heroes of Greece, who, in the tumult of armies, cultivated and exercised the sublime arts of Esculapius and Machaon? Would a virtuous priest, pouring the balm of the Levite upon the wounds of his brother, be a less interesting picture than Achilles binding up, with his own triumphant hands, the wounds of the fallen hero at his side? Would Philoctetus, cured by the divine hand of Machaon, present a more touching scene than that of the father of a family receiving life from the pastor who gives him his blessing. Authors, who are as much esteemed for their zeal for the public good, as for their knowledge, have given in their works, bearing the seal of humanity, the first elements of medicine: it is there put within the reach of the most unformed. These valuable sheets should be affixed to the breviary of the country.

Without the parish, there is a convent of Cordeliers, founded in 1623: the church is grand, and of beautiful proportion; the monastery is inclosed in a square court, and around is a cloister covered with a gallery. The library contains only works of Theology: it consists of a heap of scholastic reveries and legends. It is, however, what the monks are most eager to shew to strangers.

Travellers who stop at Alayor, without having some friend, or at least some acquaintance to offer them the civilities of hospitality, take up their lodging, as in all other towns and villages of the island, at an inn, called Casa de Rey, which has very bad accommodation. There are only dirty, unsewered, truckle beds; and the whole of the provisions consist of eggs, bad cheese, onions, execrable wine, and brown bread. These public houses, under the inspection of the bailiff, are generally kept by a Spaniard. The poor host, in a warm country, where provisions soon spoil, and where they are seldom troubled with visitors, only keeps in the house such victuals as he thinks he cannot lose by. It is great good luck if one meets with butcher's meat, fowls, or game, provided by the landlord for his family, of which he makes a voluntary sacrifice, and for which you pay very dear. And besides, at this place, as in all Spain, the innkeepers charge exorbitantly for every article; but here travellers ought to complain less of this than in those countries where the government provides for their accommodation. There scarcely arrives at a Spanish inn, in the course of a whole year, a number of travellers who spend sufficient to enable the innkeeper, from his profits, to pay his rent, and furnish maintenance

for himself and family; therefore impositions will be always practised, unfortunately for those who are compelled to submit to them.

I recollect an adventure of a Spanish officer, who was journeying through a province and put up at one of these inns. When the time of departure came, the host presented his bill: an ill-dressed ragout of meat, which was the only dish that had been set before the officer, was charged at sixteen p^{istres}. It was useless for the traveller to remonstrate, it must be paid; though it amounted to almost all the money he had about him. The poor officer continued his journey, as desirous of having his revenge, as he was mortified at the trick played him. Two years afterwards, chance led him through the same village with a strong detachment of his regiment. He did not fail to recollect the place where he had been so shamefully treated. He visited this same inn with his company, and ordered a plentiful repast for all his people. The innkeeper, who had totally forgotten the officer and the adventure, set a profusion of victuals before them, and waited on them with the greatest attention. The refreshment over, the officer asked for the bill, but without looking at it, presented the host with about twenty pence. He remonstrated, and refused the money, but he was obliged to accept it; for the odds were now against him. "Take it," said the officer, "I paid you two years ago for the dinner of to-day; and I pay you to-day for the dinner you set before me two years ago." The innkeeper recollected his guest, made a low bow with a very bad grace, and retired, muttering a thousand maledictions against the officer and his company.

In the vicinity of Alayor there are some clumps of trees, but the earth is so full of rough and pointed stones, that walking is truly painful. There is, however, one place whither one can go to breathe the air with pleasure; it was as inconvenient and rough, and consequently as little frequented as the rest of this small canton; but an English officer, who was much beloved by the soldiers, profited by their good-will, and had the ground levelled and cleared of the stones; it soon became covered with turf, and shadowed by oaks always green. This place presents an agreeable situation, where one is sheltered from the heat of the sun, and not incommoded by the humidity complained of in other countries.

About two miles from Alayor, on the road from Mahon to Ciutadella, is M^ocadal, the chief place of a district, which is eleven or twelve miles in length; and eight or nine in breadth; bounded on the north by the sea, joining with the territory of Mahon to the east, and reaching to the west as far as the village

of Férérias, which belongs to the district. The entire population of this canton does not amount to more than two thousand souls.

Mercadal derives but little advantage from being the chief place of a district; and being situated in the center of the island, and on the most frequented road, the troops halt here as they go from Mahon to Cintadella, or return from the last place. Travellers are not so well accommodated here as in the other villages of the island. The inn, or *Casa del Rey*, is miserable: it is generally customary for travellers to carry their provisions with them; and, for a trifling sum, they may obtain a reception in some private house.

Mercadal is not well built; the houses are very low, and resemble huts, which shew plainly the wretchedness of those who inhabit them. This village is situated in the most unwholesome part of the isle. The people are subject to very obstinate fevers, particularly during the heat of summer; their countenances shew the insalubrity of the air they breathe. One cannot behold the inhabitants of Mercadal without being struck with the difference which distinguishes them from the other islanders. They have something hard and forbidding in their physiognomy. This species of ugliness is more particularly remarkable in the women. Their ill health may be partly attributed to their drinking the well-water. There is, however, at the end of the village, a public cistern, which is filled by the rain waters. To procure a sufficient quantity, they have erected above the cistern a building, the roofs, or tops of which slope towards the interior part in the form of a funnel. This precaution does not prevent the reservoir from being often dry in summer, when it rains but very seldom. The streets of Mercadal are narrow, winding, and rough, being ill paved and uneven; nothing but being detained by bad weather would induce a traveller to stay any length of time in this village.

The parish church is the only public edifice: it was falling in ruins, and the devotion of the inhabitants would have erected a new temple, but the work was begun and was suspended for want of means.

About nine miles to the east of Mercadal, is the village Férérias. It contains nothing worth describing. It is distant about a gun shot from the great road, which runs through the island lengthways. This village is so ill built, and so poor, that it is a loss of time to turn out of the road to see it. However, there are quarters which can contain two hundred men, and there is a small house for the officers. The English, by whom these quarters were built, had a detachment always here. The Spaniards do not keep any troops at this place. The territory of

Tóreras may be ten miles in length and four in breadth, in the widest part. It is poor, and less cultivated than any other spot of the island: to this last circumstance is owing the abundance of game in the canton. There are, however, to be found large tracts of land, which invite the cultivator to labour: the people, naturally indolent, are from day to day impoverished by the monks, who are maintained in idleness at their expense. If the poor inhabitant of this part of Minorca had any encouragement, he would soon rouse from the inactivity in which he languishes, and the island would become enriched by the cultivation of so much land, now lost to the country.

On leaving Mercadal, the traveller finds himself a little distance from, and almost at the foot of Mount Toro. This mountain, the highest in Minorca, shews its lofty head in the middle of the island, which it overlooks on every side: it is in the form of a sugar-loaf, on a base of several miles in circumference; the ascent is by a crooked path, and full of stones. This road is protected on the side where is the steepest declivity by a wall of rough stones, which they have left broken down in several places, and chiefly in the highest and most dangerous parts. I must acknowledge, that I could not help entertaining some sensations of fear when I looked from the precipice, down a perpendicular hollow, to a frightful depth; and where I was not more than a foot distant from the edge.

When arrived at the summit of the Mount Toro, the traveller is rewarded by the varied scenery of the whole island, with a most extensive prospect. The mountain serves as a beacon to navigators who make the land of Minorca, and who would enter its ports. The air respired on the top of Mount Toro is the most pure and wholesome. The whole of the summit is occupied by a convent of Augustins: this monastery is extensive, and is not wanting in accommodations. I went to see it, but there was not any thing very worthy of notice. The monk who accompanied me, did not fail, on our entrance into the church, to draw my attention to a sort of hollow grotto in the rock, set in the wall of one of the chapels, on which was roughly sculptured the figure of a bull, discovering, by butting with its horns, the image of the Virgin. My conductor gave me a long and tiresome history of this miracle, and assured me, in the most serious manner, that the mountain had thence derived its name. I took particular care not to attribute the origin of the word Toro in his presence to Tor, which, in

of Férérias, which belongs to the district. The entire population of this canton does not amount to more than two thousand souls.

Mercadal derives but little advantage from being the chief place of a district; and being situated in the center of the island, and on the most frequented road, the troops halt here as they go from Mahon to Ciutadella, or return from the last place. Travellers are not so well accommodated here as in the other villages of the island. The inn, or *Casa del Rey*, is miserable: it is generally customary for travellers to carry their provisions with them; and, for a trifling sum, they may obtain a reception in some private house.

Mercadal is not well built; the houses are very low, and resemble huts, which shew plainly the wretchedness of those who inhabit them. This village is situated in the most unwholesome part of the isle. The people are subject to very obstinate fevers, particularly during the heat of summer; their countenances shew the insalubrity of the air they breathe. One cannot behold the inhabitants of Mercadal without being struck with the difference which distinguishes them from the other islanders. They have something hard and forbidding in their physiognomy. This species of ugliness is more particularly remarkable in the women. Their ill health may be partly attributed to their drinking the well-water. There is, however, at the end of the village, a public cistern, which is filled by the rain waters. To procure a sufficient quantity, they have erected above the cistern a building, the roofs, or tops of which slope towards the interior part in the form of a funnel. This precaution does not prevent the reservoir from being often dry in summer, when it rains but very seldom. The streets of Mercadal are narrow, winding, and rough, being ill paved and uneven; nothing but being detained by bad weather would induce a traveller to stay any length of time in this village.

The parish church is the only public edifice: it was falling in ruins, and the devotion of the inhabitants would have erected a new temple, but the work was begun and was suspended for want of means.

About nine miles to the east of Mercadal, is the village Férérias. It contains nothing worth describing. It is distant about a gun shot from the great road, which runs through the island lengthways. This village is so ill built, and so poor, that it is a loss of time to turn out of the road to see it. However, there are quarters which can contain two hundred men, and there is a small house for the officers. The English, by whom these quarters were built, had a detachment always here. The Spaniards do not keep any troops at this place. The territory of

Férérins may be ten miles in length and four in breadth, in the widest part. It is poor, and less cultivated than any other spot of the island: to this last circumstance is owing the abundance of game in the canton. There are, however, to be found large tracts of land, which invite the cultivator to labour: the people, naturally indolent, are from day to day impoverished by the monks, who are maintained in idleness at their expense. If the poor inhabitant of this part of Minorca had any encouragement, he would soon rouse from the inactivity in which he languishes, and the island would become enriched by the cultivation of so much land, now lost to the country.

On leaving Mercadal, the traveller finds himself a little distance from, and almost at the foot of Mount Toro. This mountain, the highest in Minorca, shews its lofty head in the middle of the island, which it overlooks on every side: it is in the form of a sugar-loaf, on a base of several miles in circumference; the ascent is by a crooked path, and full of stones. This road is protected on the side where is the steepest declivity by a wall of rough stones, which they have left broken down in several places, and chiefly in the highest and most dangerous parts. I must acknowledge, that I could not help entertaining some sensations of fear when I looked from the precipice, down a perpendicular hollow, to a frightful depth; and where I was not more than a foot distant from the edge.

When arrived at the summit of the Mount Toro, the traveller is rewarded by the varied scenery of the whole island, with a most extensive prospect. The mountain serves as a beacon to navigators who make the land of Minorca, and who would enter its ports. The air respired on the top of Mount Toro is the most pure and wholesome. The whole of the summit is occupied by a convent of Augustins: this monastery is extensive, and is not wanting in accommodations. I went to see it, but there was not any thing very worthy of notice. The monk who accompanied me, did not fail, on our entrance into the church, to draw my attention to a sort of hollow grotto in the rock, set in the wall of one of the chapels, on which was roughly sculptured the figure of a bull, discovering, by butting with its horns, the image of the Virgin. My conductor gave me a long and tiresome history of this miracle, and assured me, in the most serious manner, that the mountain had thence derived its name. I took particular care not to attribute the origin of the word Toro in his presence to Tor, which, in

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the Arabian language signifies elevation, certainly the most natural and probable etymology. I could not help, at the same time, entertaining the melancholy reflection, that the ministers of our religion too frequently impose on the credulity and simplicity of the people. I cast my eyes afterwards on a vast number of *ex-votos*, with which the chapel is covered. How much to be pitied are the unhappy beings who go daily to affix to these sacred walls the monuments of their faith, and the trophies of the superior craftiness of the monks. The most severe and painful pilgrimages are made to Mount Toro: I have seen men and even women make the journey with bare feet; I have even seen them carry their devotion so far, as to ascend the mountain on their knees reciting slowly their rosaries. Surely these practices are not less absurd with us, than the austerities of the Bonzes and the followers of Mahomet. The last do not pay for their absurdities, and the first never fail to lodge in the hands of the monks the tributes of their folly, in which consists all the difference.

The English had built a telegraph on the summit of Mount Toro; it communicated with all the others placed on the different points of the island. I am sometimes tempted to wish, from its advantageous position, that the convent of the Augustins was transformed into fortified barracks, where might be kept a sufficient force. From this post, overlooking the whole island, they could descend rapidly, in case of attack to any given point where the enemy might attempt a landing.

Six miles from Mount Toro, towards the north, is Port Fornels; it describes a large circle, of which the mouth is very narrow, and is to the north. This port is well sheltered, and can, in some parts of it, receive the largest vessels, but it requires a perfect knowledge of the soundings; there are shoals even in the middle of it: the difficulty of going in is still more increased by the squalls which come from the mountains and hills forming the passage. The entrance is defended by a small fort, built upon a point to the right of the harbour: it is square, constructed of free-stone, flanked with four bastions, and as many curtains, with a wretched moat, without exterior works. The rooms and magazines occupy the interior of the square. These buildings are vaulted, and above it formed the rampart. When the English took Minorca, there was a chapel in this fort. The barrack-masters being ordinarily, the sutlers of the detachment, changed it into a tavern. The fire of this fort is sup-

ported by that of another, constructed with numbered pieces of wood, and which was brought from London. It is erected on a small island at the end of the port, and opposite the mouth. This fort has two stories; the first serves to lodge the garrison, the second is cut in battlements, or rather porphyries for a battery of four pieces, of a large calibre. Under this portable castle they have dug a subterraneous place, which serves as a magazine for powder; and there is also a cistern. Besides these two small forts, the batteries of which consist of nine pieces; there is, on a point at the mouth of the port on the left, a tower mounted with an eighteen pounder on a swivel: when I visited these batteries I found them absolutely defenceless, and only saw a few pieces of artillery, unmounted. The English had built on the shore of the Port Fernel, a small hospital, with from thirty to forty beds, quarters for about sixty men, and rooms for the commandant and officers. These edifices which were very much out of repair at the time the island was restored to the Spaniards, are now of appearance deserted. The garrison consisted only of a few infantry and two gunners, commanded by a sergeant.

On the right shore of the port is a little village, or rather a hamlet inhabited by a few fishermen. The Port of Fernel might be rendered advantageous to commerce and navigation. In place of the huts of the fishermen, there might be built, in a short space of time, commodious dwellings and warehouses, where the merchant might deposit his goods, the islander his articles of trade, and the mariner his naval stores. The Port of Fernel might be made of utility, without being an injury to that of Mahon, which would always possess superior advantages.

To the north-west of Mercadal is Mount St. Agatha, it towers above a quantity of smaller hills which surround it. The scenery together presents a vast landscape of rocks, steep and barren: the traveller feels, at sight of the picture, at once admiration and terror; his reflections are led to the causes which have occasioned this desert state of a part of the island. In considering the assemblage of mountains, which appear one vast rock stript of verdure, his imagination recurs to the time when it was fertile, and enriched with trees and plants. The soil seems to have been, for ages, carried down by the successive rains in the plain below; perhaps violent earthquakes may have accelerated the phenomena. The entrails of the mountains are, in fact, to be seen through the chasms, and present only a heap of

rubbish, and of broken pieces of the rock. If nature, however, seem here to have spread forth her ruins, she displays herself with all her beauty on the opposite side; with what delightful emotion does the traveller turn his eye from a first scene, to the delightful landscape of fertile vallies, vineyards, and sloping hills in furrows made by the plough of the peaceful labourer, or offering their rich verdure to the bleating flocks.

A naturalist, in surveying the mountains which surround St. Agatha, will observe a peculiarity in the form of one of the lesser ones. It consists entirely of a naked rock divided into several beds heaped one on the other, and which are not parallel to the surface of the earth, but which form an angle of more than thirty degrees with the horizon. This singularity seems to contradict the opinion of philosophers, who pretend that the different particles of matter of which the earth is composed, precipitate themselves in the manner water evaporates, according to their respective degrees of density, and that they have formed all over the globe regular and horizontal beds. May not the inclined direction of the stones which compose the little mountain in the neighbourhood of Saint Agatha be attributed to some change which has happened since the deluge?

It is not an easy matter to get to the summit of mount Agatha, the only way is by an ascent cut into the rock in the way of stairs, of which the steps are gigantic. The mules climb up, however loaded. If, however, these animals are used to ascend, sure footed as they are, it is prudent to walk on foot. These steps are, in several places, wet with the springs, which makes it very slippery and dangerous in many parts.

The summit of mount Agatha presents a little plain of about six acres. It is the residence of a shepherd and his family; he has a flock of sheep which are nourished by the small quantity of herbage to be found on the mountain and its environs. On the heights is built a small chapel, dedicated to Saint Agatha. It is a pilgrimage which the women are eager to make. The walls of this chapel are adorned with figures in wax, silver, and wood, the monuments of miraculous cures. Saint Agatha relieved the diseases of the breast. Every saint here, as elsewhere, is specially gifted by the credulity of the people and the address of the priests, for the cure of particular maladies.

The mount St. Agatha was formerly one of the most ancient military posts of the island. It is not to be doubted

that the Romans profited of so advantageous a position; the Moors, masters of Minorca, fortified mount St. Agatha, and there defended themselves a considerable time, after their countrymen, vanquished in different combats, were compelled to abandon all the other fortresses of the island. The ruins at present in existence of the ancient fortifications do not shew an epoch more remote than that of the dominion of the Moors. These fortifications were irregular as the ground on which they were raised. On the summit was a fort which could hold out after the outworks had been taken, and is composed of thick walls, flanked at regular distances by towers. In the lower part of the summit are dug two immense cisterns, which are yet entire. These reservoirs are constructed of a kind of cement moulded in a frame, and the inner part plastered with a still finer sort. Armstrong, in his history of Minorca, says, that these reservoirs contain two millions one hundred and ninety thousand three hundred and eighty-four Paris pints. The calculation appears to me a little exaggerated.

It is not far from mount St. Agatha to Adaia, a farm which deserves particular notice. It is situated almost on the sea-shore of a little port to the east of mount Toro. It presents, on this side, a pleasant amphitheatre, whilst on the opposite, it is surrounded by mountains. The summit of these mountains is continually stript of soil carried away by the rains, the slime of which, deposited at the foot of the hills, produce in the vallies a prodigious fertility. The mountains protect the farm from the north wind; however, this part of the isle passes for unwholesome, and they attribute, with reason, the cause to the exhalations from the marshes formed by the rain waters which stagnate in the hollows beneath the mountains; it would be easy to remedy this inconvenience. It would not be more difficult, nor of less utility to repair, or rather to make the road from Mahon to this part of the country, from which it is only distant nine miles; although this journey is so short it is a painful, and even dangerous, in some places, particularly in the winter, when the weather is bad.

The gardens belonging to the farm of Adaia are very fertile; cultivated with care, and produce every kind of fruit and vegetables, the culture of which has been introduced. The vines, orange trees, and pomegranates succeed better than in any other part of the island. The Minorcans set a particular value on the water melons of Adaia. One of the great advantages of this farm is that of having in the

vicinity a very plentiful spring, which supplies at pleasure water for the gardens, and which helps not a little to give the fruits and vegetables of the farm of Adaia, an acknowledged superiority over those of the rest of the island, as in the other parts they are obliged to make use of well water, which makes the watering more laborious, and not so complete.

There are some well shaded promenades at Adaia, and where, during the summer heats, one breathes with pleasure a refreshing breeze from the sea, which is very pleasant and agreeable: Adaia has also the advantage of a small port, where the amusement of fishing may be had amidst landscapes of a beautifully varied perspective. The entrance is concealed by the intermediate lands towards the north. This port resembles a river; its banks are covered with evergreens, which bend over the water that reflects their foliage. Unfortunately, rocks and shallows make this port useless as a place of anchorage. Thus there are to be seen only small fishing boats in the harbour.

The situation and real utility of the farm of Adaia makes one regret that the proprietor, who is a man of taste, does not enjoy a fortune sufficient to afford the means to profit by the bounteous gifts of nature, the excellent qualities of the soil, and the advantage of plentiful springs of water: with such means he could presently transform the humble farm into a most delightful residence. A traveller might then indeed with truth make use of the words of cardinal de Retz, in his description of the port of Niahon. The stranger who is entertained at Adaia is charmed with the amenity and sweetness of disposition belonging to the character of the proprietor; in addition to which excellent qualities, he possesses a profound erudition with an enlightened mind, that, in the judgment of the intelligent, gives him the first rank among his fellow citizens.

A narrow Cape separates the port of Adaia from another small anchorage, called the Molin; where the English landed in the year 1798.

CHAP. VII.

DISTRICT OF CIUTADELLA.

AT the western extremity of the island of Minorea is situated the town of Ciutadella. It is but a short distance from the sea shore. The port is small, and at the end shallow and marshy; it is a kind of narrow canal with rocks on each side; the entrance is difficult, and can only admit small vessels, and those are often much disabled at times when the cross winds blow. To the right of the entrance is a large round tower, built by the English, who placed there a telegraph. This tower is protected by a platform, on which are two large swivels. This sort of fort could at most only prevent the entrance of a privateer.

At a short distance is the church of St. Nicholas, held in great veneration among seafaring people, who go thither on pilgrimage. They have hung on the walls some shabby pictures, representing the dangers to which they have been exposed in the course of their voyages, and their deliverance from which perils, they piously attribute to the intercession of Saint Nicholas. This religious custom is very ancient, and may be traced to a very remote period. It was practised among the Greeks and Romans, but often, not content with hanging these representations in the temples, those who had made the vow, wore them suspended to their necks, and thus presented to the eyes of their fellow citizens the history of the dangers they had escaped. HORACE alludes to this custom in the fifth ode of his first book :

" *Mc tabula sacrae
Votiva paries indicat avida
Suspendi se potens
Vestimenta maris deo.*"

On the shore to the left is another tower, on which they hoist the signals to the ships in the offing.

The city of Ciutadella is surrounded by a wall, part of which, on the side next the land, is the work of the Moors. It is very high, and has been well preserved for near six centuries. The more modern part consists of a rampart,

and several bastions and curtains built with hewn stone. Near the curtains the rampart is narrow; the bastions are broad; part of the moat which they had begun to dig in the rock is deep; there is also to be seen the beginning of the parapet of a covered way. These works, abandoned by the English, remain in an unfinished state. In cases of ~~war~~, the garrison of Ciutadella, incapable of sustaining a siege, must necessarily fall back into fort St. Phillippe; but now that all the fortifications of the castle are entirely destroyed, the troops which might be found at Ciutadella, would be obliged to capitulate almost without resistance.

The wretched fortifications of this city were besides stripped of artillery, at the time when the English broke with Spain, and suddenly began hostilities. Their squadrons having sent their cruisers to the shores of Minorca, justified the fear that the island would be invaded. These fears were strengthened by the capture of the Castile regiment, sent from Barcelona to augment the forces of Minorca. The conveyance of the transports with the troops from Barcelona directly to Minorca exposed them to be taken; a surer way would have been that of Denia, in the kingdom of Valentia, making use of small boats only, which from the shore seeing the whole of the canal, with the island of Ivica, might have taken advantage of the first favourable moment for so short a course. They would have passed from Ivica to Majorca, and marched the troops from this port to Alcudia, from whence they could reach Ciutadella without danger. They have tried this route, and in spite of several English cruisers, the troops have successively arrived. At the time the Castile regiment was taken, there was in the island only the regiment of Tioria, of about seven or eight hundred men capable of taking the field, and a battalion of a thousand or eleven hundred men, rangers of Catalonia, almost entirely composed of recruits drawn out of prisons, or sent into the regiment as vagabonds. The importance of the island of Minorca required that the garrison should be composed of well-disciplined troops, and not of soldiers whose inexperience made them of no service, and whose morals at the same time were not such as to inspire any degree of confidence. By the attention of the commander and officers to perfect this corps, it is now sufficiently disciplined, and is kept in very excellent condition. Pressed by the fear of the danger, they hastened to put Ciutadella, if not in a state to sustain a regular siege, at least capable of resistance in case of a coup de main, and to keep sufficient

force to be able to send succours to the other points of the island. They are repairing, though imperfectly the fortifications, and have placed in batteries on the bastions fourteen pieces of eighteen and twenty-four pounders, and two mortars. The garrison, which scarcely amounted to fifty men, was increased to four hundred. They had purposed to form a small fortified camp under the walls of Ciutadella, which would have protected the front of the place. This camp was to serve as a retreat in case the troops should be obliged to go out of the city; and in this camp they proposed keeping the chief part of the stores and provisions. The oxen, sheep, horses, and mules designed to transport the baggage, and ammunition, and for the service of the artillery of the field. Happily this extravagant plan was not adopted. It was easy to judge that this camp would have been taken without any trouble, or surrounded and compelled by famine to capitulate.

Since the demolition of the famous Fort St. Phillippe, they seem to have entirely given up any endeavour to make defence in the island by walls and ramparts. The works raised by the English, at the entrance of the port of Mahon, were nothing but a fortified line; all the batteries of which could only serve to hinder or retard any entrance into the port. They had preserved some of the works, but the Spaniards have so destroyed them, that the little fortifications which remain are only a few batteries.

The defence of Minorca seems not to allow any other than an open campaign, or an affair of posts.

The island is covered almost every where with little mountains, or hills, forming between them narrow vallies, which run to the sea-shore. The small number of plains are intersected in every direction with enclosures of low walls of dry stone. At the time of hostilities, they had only one single road by which artillery could be conveyed. This road goes from one end of Minorca to the other; from the batteries of the port of Mahon as far as Ciutadella. The Spaniards have now made two others; the one from the city of Mahon, which reaches beyond the village St. Louis, near the sea-shore, eastward; the other beginning at the same point, and ending at the small bay of Mesquida, near Cape Mola.

The shores of the island form a great number of small bays, or creeks, where a landing might be effected; but to get into the interior of Minorca, there are many difficult ways and narrow passages, where the enemy would easily

be stopt by the troops occupying the heights. The first and most essential disposition for the defence of Minorca, is to place the troops in the most favourable situation to move with expedition to those parts of the island where the enemy might threaten a landing. This situation is the center of the island. The troops might be placed on Mount Toro, at Férérias, Mercadal and Alayor. Mount St. Agatha is also a post of importance, and they would be near enough to prevent it falling into the hands of the enemy, if they should succeed in landing, and gaining ground on this side of the island. In the course of the month of May 1805, the Minorcans were called to arms, on an occasion which served to prove the truth of this observation, and the necessity of using telegraphs in the room of the defective signals now employed. One morning a signal was made on the coast of the island, a short distance from Ciutadella, of a squadron being in the offing, the manœuvres of which indicated an attempt. The intelligence, conveyed by an order sent from Ciutadella, did not arrive till five o'clock in the evening. All the garrison received orders to hold themselves in readiness to march. About four hundred men of the regiment of Soria departed as soon as possible for Ciutadella, where there was at that time only fifty men. From Mahon to is reckoned at least eight long leagues: before these troops could have possibly arrived, there is no doubt, but that the enemy would have had time to land and possess themselves of posts, from which it would have been very difficult to dislodge them with troops fatigued by a long and painful march.

With the exception of three or four hundred men, of which number the garrison of Ciutadella consists, fifty or sixty at the Port Fornels, and some small detachments of three or four men on different points of the island, the whole of the united force of Minorca are centered at Mahon, the Ravalle, and the batteries of the port; that is to say, at one of the extremities of the island. There also are all the field artillery, with all the ammunition and provisions.

The total force of the island, at the time of my departure, consisted of 3,100 foot soldiers of the line, 1,500 rangers, 500 engineers and miners, and 90 horse soldiers, in all 5,190 men. The daily service, including the garrisons of Ciutadella and Fornels, and the small detachments, employs about 700 men; the remaining 4,490, from which may yet be deducted 300, besides those who are sick, prisoners, and recruits, make the whole disposable force of

the country 4,090 men. The troops are good and well disciplined.

Cavalry cannot be employed to advantage in a country where there are no plains. Thus the service of the horse soldiers is reduced to carrying orders to the several posts of the island, and conveying the correspondence when the couriers, coming from Majorca and the continent, are obliged to go into any other port than that of Mahon. However, they have been forced to retrain this cavalry with horses by a requisition from those of the islanders, as the horses they had were unfit for service.

The island is sufficiently provided with artillery for the ramparts and the field. They have added a certain number of mules, as well to convey the ammunition as for the service of the artillery, in which they are alternately exercised. Minorca has received from Spain a large quantity of warlike stores. The magazines are furnished with spare arms and tents to encamp the troops. I perceived, with regret, that they neglected to make them previously acquainted with the interior, and the different posts to be occupied in case the enemy should succeed in advancing into the island. Once only the governor ordered out the garrison to be reviewed; the troops took the heights in the vicinity of the bay of Mesquita; they placed themselves in order of battle, and some platoon firing comprised the whole of their manœuvres. This exercise, or parade, was performed in the presence of the governor's wife and some other ladies. I thought that I was rather a spectator of some holiday procession than of a military evolution.

The government of Minorca, and consequently the preservation of this important island, is confided to a brigadier of his Majesty's forces. The present commander joins to a high sense of honour, virtues and social qualities, which cannot be too highly esteemed. It is to be wished that this governor was invested with an authority which would place him out of the power of interferences and oppositions from the different administrations, which hinder and often destroy the force of his operations.

There are four different quarters to lodge the troops at Cintadella: the first is built near the gate of Majorca, and is bomb proof; it can contain three hundred foot soldiers: the second, on the parade can lodge an hundred and fifty men: the third, a small distance removed, holds an hundred and twenty, and the fourth, thirty cavalry.

There is no hospital but that of the city, which can re-

ceive as many as two hundred sick. But at Ciutadella, and at Mahon there are houses large enough, and the convents, which in time of need could be made use of to lodge the troops, and as hospitals and magazines. The English did not fail to make use of these resources when the island of Minorca was the place of rendezvous, and for taking in fresh provisions for their squadrons in the Mediterranean.

The mansion of the governor of Ciutadella is built at the foot of a bastion which overlooks the town. It is large enough, but very irregular. The kitchen and other offices are level with the ground floor. The first story joins and is on a level with the ramparts, which form an agreeable promenade, from whence may be seen part of the island, a large extent of sea, and the island of Majorca, about ten leagues distant. The interior of this house is ill contrived, and at the time I saw it, was almost without furniture. There is a garden belonging to it on one side of the parade surrounded with high walls; this garden has very little care bestowed upon it, particularly now the government of Ciutadella is given to an officer of subaltern rank, who certainly has not the means of affording the necessary expence which a proper cultivation would require. There is also a chapel in this hotel, but it is not used.

The principal church of Ciutadella, which is at the same time the cathedral of the island, is built in the center of the city; it is large, and has a square tower, terminated by a spire of hewn stone. At a distance this octagon steeple has a pleasing effect in the perspective of Ciutadella. It is said that this church was built near the time that Alphonso, the king of Arragon made the conquest of the island, in the year 1287. There was a cathedral church in the year 418, under the emperor Honorius, when Ciutadella (at that time called Jamnon, from the name of a Carthaginian general, who was said to be the founder) was the see of St. Severus, the bishop of Minorca. The present church was probably built on the foundation of the first. It would be difficult to say precisely at what epoch: above the gate of the vestibule is the following inscription, dated 1360.

ACI. IIIU. F. N. ET. DE. CORSA.
PREVERA. QUI. FO. OFECIAL.
DE. MANORCA. LO QUAL.
PASSA. DE. SOA. DIDA.
AM. DE JOLIOL. LAND.
MCCCLX. DOC. DEO. LAIA.

This epitaph informs us, that an officer employed at Minorca, whose name was John, a native of Corsica, was interred in this church the 11th of July 1360. This monument, in other respects little interesting, serves at least to mark an epoch of the antiquity of the cathedral of Citta-della. On the south side of the church are a considerable number of sculptures cut in the rock. There are many others of the same kind without the walls of the city: these memorials seem to me to belong to the time of the Moors; as the christians have for a long time been accustomed to deposit their dead in the churches, by which it appears that the infidels had the advantage of us in both reason and prudence. The Christian custom, which has often been the cause of fatal effects, is continued here through the obstinate blindness of the faithful. How then can we reproach those who have preceded us, when we ourselves in the nineteenth century persist in the practice of the same absurdities? The temple where the islanders go to offer up their prayers and praises to the Almighty, is changed into a place infected with cadaverous exhalations. But the good Minorcans are persuaded, that their bodies being deposited at the foot of an altar, assures, or at least facilitates, the entrance of their souls into the abodes of the blessed. The kinsfolk and friends, who come to water with their tears the stones which cover these graves, carry away but too often the seeds of a distemper, which soon hastens them to the same sepulchre. How many examples of sudden death may be imputed to the opening of these pestilential repositories of the dead. The evidence of experience has not yet prevailed over ridiculous custom and mistaken credulity. Has the poor man, to whom fortune has denied the means of depositing his remains in the sanctuary, less right to hope for the mercy of his God, than the rich one covered with a marble monument, which merely transmits to posterity his name and the date of his departure from this life? Will the great man, who, under gilded roofs, has passed his days, spun out by the hand of pleasure, days which has produced only to his fellow-creatures the sweat of the brow and unavailing tears, will he appear before his judge with more confidence than the unfortunate being who has eaten the bread of bitterness in the humble hut which served to shelter him from the seasons? Forgive me reflections so foreign to my subject, and which would come better from other pens. Experience has, however, dictated regulations which prohibit interment in the churches; but what laws

will not, fanaticism and money elude; I have witnessed a striking instance of this truth. In a convent at Mahon, the monks sell to the vanity as well as to the devotion of some persons, the vaults appropriated to themselves in the cloisters. These friars have thus eluded a wholesome law, by a speculation as revolting to decency as to propriety; and they continue to heap carcase on carcase in their church.

The ancients caused their dead to be buried without the walls of their cities, and in the fields; they even burnt the bodies and preserved only the ashes. It is not among the ruins of the temples that the sepulchres are still to be seen: these tombs, erected by the hand of piety and of gratitude, whereon are read the funereal inscriptions, which bring to our recollection the heroes of antiquity, and those great men who carried to the tomb the regret of their fellow citizens; "but these were pagans," is all the answer that is to be got from these monks and fanatics.

The Augustins have a convent near to the port of Mahon; the edifice is grand, and the church is ornamented with a dome; for the rest, there is nothing remarkable. These monks maintain sometimes public disputations, the subject generally as absurd as the jargon is barbarous; for example, "Did matter exist before form, or form before matter." This is one of the important questions they most gravely discuss, and their conclusions are just as wise, *Tua propositio non est vera, ergo est falsa*; what miserable logic is this!

Beyond the port of Mahon is another monastery, of the order of Saint Anthony. These monks are rich; their church is small, but handsomely ornamented. The garden is the greatest curiosity, as it is cultivated in the quarry which supplied the stones with which the convent is built.

The Franciscans have also a monastery in the interior of the town, near the parade. The building is large, but irregular. These monks occupy themselves in the service of the public; they have an apothecary's shop, where they sell to the people those drugs of which they stand in need, and a school for the instruction of children.

At Ciutadella is a convent of nuns of St. Claire, who pass the tedious hours in weeping for their sins; probably the sin of quitting the world, is that which is most seriously repented by many of these virgins.

The city of Ciutadella contains about seven hundred houses; some of them are very handsome, but in general the streets are narrow, crooked, and badly paved. There

are piazzas on each side of the principal street, which, with the cloisters of the convents, serve for promenades when the weather will not permit walking out of the city. The district of Ciutadella may be about eleven miles in length, and five or six in breadth. It contains nearly a hundred and forty farms, and the total population does not exceed eight thousand persons. In Ciutadella is the residence of the bishop of Minorca, and the houses of most of the nobility of the country, which are the only remains of its former pre-eminence.

In the environs, to the north of Ciutadella are some well cultivated gardens, which produce in abundance all sorts of fruit and vegetables.

In the vicinity of Ciutadella is a very curious grotto, which is generally visited by travellers. Bomare mentions it in his Dictionary of Natural History. It is situated two miles to the south of the city. This grotto is hollowed by nature in the rock; the entrance is narrow and difficult, but it widens at once as you descend, and by the light of flambeaux may be discovered other smaller grottos, which all communicate with the large one. There distils from the roof of these grottos a water, which is so impregnated with vitrifying matter, that it forms an infinite number of stalactites of the colour of brown sugar-candy, not very transparent. These petrifications have a thousand different forms. There are some not thicker than the quill of a pen, while others are of considerable size. The whole forms a number of columns which seem to support the vaulted roof of the grotto. One may observe the gradation and progress of these petrifications; in many places are seen little capitals which descend from the roof, as if to join those bases which rise from the ground underneath, as the water petrifies which falls from the roof in other places; the spaces between the capitals and the bases are filled by the shafts of the columns; some of which are regular enough, others very imperfect, and seem to be of the gothic order: in short, the whole forms an enormous mass of large and small pillars, adhering one to the other. The floor of the cavern is covered with petrified matter of considerable thickness; this curious grotto is called "*La Cova Perella*."

There is a neighbouring cavern containing a kind of lake of salt water, which makes it probable, that it has some communication with the sea.

On the way to these caverns, there is found, on the sea-shore, among the sand, a great quantity of small pieces of

red coral. The fishermen frequently draw up with their nets whole branches of white coral, but hardly ever any red. The fragments which are found on the shore are probably brought thither by the waves, at those times when the sea is rough and the wind westerly.

The Hippocampus, (which the natives call the sea-horse, is very commonly found here. The *Stella marina arborescens*, is also often found, but much damaged by beating against the rocks.

The land in this part is barren and without any of the usual productions of cultivation, but it abounds in fossils and shells.

CHAP. VIII.

CLIMATE, QUALITIES, AND PRODUCTIONS OF THE LANDS AND COASTS OF THE ISLAND OF MINORCA.

THE climate of the island of Minorca is not so mild and temperate as that of the neighbouring islands. Situated at the mouth of the gulph of Leon, Minorca is not like Majorca sheltered by the height of the mountains; this island consequently experiences all the severity of the north winds, which frequently blow with great violence. On the northern shores of the island the power of these winds may be observed, the shores are broken and uneven in all that part of the isle. The trees and plants do not thrive, and all bend or incline towards the south. In the winter, although snow or ice is rarely seen, yet the cold is nevertheless severe, so that it is necessary to have fire in the apartments, and to be warmly clothed. The autumn is the rainy season, in which are always successive and abundant rains. During the spring the air is always pure and temperate, but the heats of summer are insupportably sultry.

The land or soil of Minorca is of several kinds, that of the mountains and hills is blackish, fine, light, and very fertile, though but thinly spread on the surface of the rock. It is mixed with a great quantity of sand, which makes the labour easier to the cultivator. The soil on the plains is not so fertile as that of the mountains, it is cold and clayey, and not good either for pasture or agriculture. Nevertheless it

produces a quantity of different sorts of herbage, which would be very good food for cattle, if they were not mixed with other sorts which are acid, and which they will not eat. Among these plants there are some which might interest the curiosity and researches of a botanist. The valleys are fertilized by the quantity of earth which is washed from the surrounding mountains by the rains, but these are impoverished in the same proportion. On some of these mountains they have raised banks or little walls of dry stones to support the lands, leaving a free course for the water. This method preserves their fertility. In the interior of the island, on digging into the rock, the earth is found mixed with a great quantity of flints and stones. The islanders make use of them to build little walls which form an infinite number of enclosures with which the island is intersected in every direction.

In the districts of Alayor and Pérérias there are some small woods of pines and green oaks, but they are stunted in growth and do not stand very thick.

The olives, oranges, lemons, and pomegranates succeed very well, and the culture of them requires but little care or labour.

There is also found in the island a kind of clay of a grey colour, which on being baked, or rather burnt, becomes of a light brown; the inhabitants make crockery of it, such as cups, jugs, and tiles. In some places there is a kind of clay which is blue and yellow; of which the Minorcans make no use.

The kind of plaister called gnyech, which I have already mentioned, is common in many places in the island; but the Minorcans prefer that which is brought from Majorca. The plaister, which they distinguish by the name of *perelle*, is whiter and more brittle and shining: they use it to clarify their wines.

Rock crystal is rare at Minorca; but in the district of Alayor they very commonly find that sort of Muscovy glass, which encrusts the plants and vegetables.

In the district of Alayor there is a pond of stagnant water nearly a mile in length; it is about three hundred paces from the sea. The space between forms a sandy beach, which is sometimes entirely covered with the waves. Near the shore is a small eminence, where most of the plants are encrusted with a sandy substance of some thickness, the outside of which is greenish and brittle, and the internal part white, and as hard as flint. The ground is strewn with a

quantity of these encrustations, the plants which they encrusted having been separated, or having perished or dissolved by time.

In digging the earth for stone the Minorcans discover veins as hard as flint, which they are obliged to blow up with gunpowder. The strata of this hard stone are generally a foot in thickness, and the deeper they dig the harder it becomes, and is less mixed with shells and other substances, which are on the surface. As the stone is porous and easily penetrated by the water, they expose it to the air some time before they make use of it.

Lime stone is common at Minorca; it is of a light grey colour, very hard and shining; where it has been recently broken, it contains many echinites and other remains of the deluge, particularly in the upper strata. It is generally found in detached pieces dispersed in the fields, and when these fragments are, neither too many nor too large, far from injuring the vegetation of the corn, it assists it by the heat which it imparts.

There is a quantity of slate at Minorca, particularly on the side of Cape Mola, which would facilitate the conveyance of it, if the Minorcans did not prefer the use of tiles. This slate is smooth, shining, and of a bluish colour, with veins of white. It has a number of perpendicular fissures, which divide it into masses of a convenient size for use.

Marble of different qualities is found at Minorca; but the islanders take no account of it.

There is neither fire-stone nor chalk in the island; the Minorcans have the first from other countries, and instead of the last they adopt the marking stone from Naples, which tailors use, but bricklayers and carpenters make use of a black or red stone to mark their work.

In most places of the island iron ore is found on the surface of the earth, in pieces of six or eight inches diameter. The Minorcans make not the least use of it, whether because it is not fit to make iron alone, or that they are ignorant what use to make of it, or whether the want of wood compels them to give up this branch of industry.

There are also lead mines at Minorca; but working them does not appear likely to defray the necessary expences.

Sea shells are often found in the earth, and even petrified fish. The Minorcans give the name of *glossopetres* to some teeth of large fish, such as shark; they are commonly found in the marries.

It is not rare to find some of the stones called toad-stones. The islanders value them much, and set them in rings and buttons.

There are also many kinds of fossils and petrifications. The island of Minorca produces variety of vegetables for the table, and abundance of physical herbs and plants.

Wheat and barley are the only sorts of grain which are sown in the island, but the produce is not sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants; they have a small quantity of Turkish corn, which is cultivated in the environs of the towns. The harvest generally begins in the middle of June. When the corn is ripening, the fields are watched by young boys and girls, who by hallooing, or by the noise they make by beating their hand with slit reeds, endeavour to frighten away the small birds, and prevent them eating the corn. This was a custom in the time of the Romans: Virgil, in his first book of the Georgics, makes it a precept: *Et sonitu terribis aves*. The general produce is six for one, or at most, nine for one, which is reckoned an abundant harvest. They tread out the corn in places prepared for that purpose, with horses or mules two or four abreast. It is then winnowed: they carefully gather up the straw; cut it very small, and mix it with a little barley; this serves as food for horses, mules, and asses.

To manure the land they use the dung and litter of the cattle, mixed with the sweepings of the houses.

The produce of wine, both red and white, is more than sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants; it is of a very good quality. I have drunk of five or six years old, some which equalled best Burgundy wines: hence they cultivate the vine with peculiar care.

The olive tree flourishes in every part of the island, and the husbandman leaves it almost entirely to the care of nature. The islanders obtain but little oil from their olives, they pretend that they are dried up by the north winds; they preserve them for use, but the preparation is so defective that a stranger can never eat them with any pleasure.

The Minorcans have plenty of several sorts of fruit; oranges, lemons, and pomegranates arrive to great perfection, and some sorts of apples, which are very good; they have excellent pears both in summer and winter. The island also produces fig-trees, the fruit is very good. The red mulberry-tree is the only one which is cultivated, but the white would thrive equally well. Walnuts and chestnuts are very scarce.

There are some palm-trees, but they are only in use as

being ornamental, the fruit never comes to any degree of perfection.

They have roots and vegetables in abundance of every kind, the beans, peas, onions, kidney beans, and cauliflower, are excellent; the broccoli is also very good, as are the endive, pumpions, and tomatoes. The spinach, carrots, and parsnips have but little flavour, the turnips are hard and stringy, and are but seldom used, the lettuces are tasteless, they generally mix them with cresses. The dandelion is very common in the spring, but it has an unpleasant bitterness. The Minorcans use an amazing quantity of pepper.

The water melons, which are in season at the end of June, when the heat is most powerful, are succulent and very refreshing; and whatever quantity is eaten, they very seldom occasion any disagreeable sensation or illness: at every turn you meet children seeking a slice of melon; these melons last till the middle of October.

The leeks of Minorca are much esteemed, and there is an abundance of thyme, hyssop, marjoram, sage, parsley, savoury, maygold, mint, beet, and sorrel; this last is not much in use among the Minorcans. Their cucumbers are larger and better than ours. They have only wild asparagus, which has a disagreeable taste. The rosemary and wormwood grows naturally among the rocks, there are also quantities of sea fennel and other medicinal herbs.

Almost all the old walls are covered with caper trees, and capers seasoned with vinegar and salt, are much used in the kitchens of the Minorcans.

It is in vain to expect or look for any taste or regularity in the gardens, utility alone is attended to, and no part is devoted to pleasure or beauty.

The honey of Minorca is in great esteem, but the quantity is not sufficient to make it an article of commerce, the inhabitants preserve the surplus of their own consumption, to send as presents to their distant friends.

The island supports near sixteen hundred beasts of burden, horses, mules, and asses.

The number of horned cattle is about six or seven thousand.

The flocks of sheep, goats, &c. amount to forty or forty-five thousand, besides ten thousand swine.

The number of horses is not great, and the inhabitants do not endeavour to increase them, as their feed is more

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expensive, and their service less than that of the mules and asses, which are for this reason preferred.

The mules are strong and will feed on any thing they find in their way, and may be kept in good condition with very little care. These animals are very sure footed, and possess surprizing sagacity. One may see them sometimes with a rider on their backs, gallop up a steep mountain, or run along the edge of a precipice. They are mostly very vicious; and often chuse the worst roads, and scrub the walls as they go with the legs of the rider; whom, if by chance, he let loose the bridle or stirrups, they make every effort to throw from their backs. These animals will sometimes live forty years.

The asses are also very strong, and serve equally well to ride as to carry loads. It is not unusual to meet parties of men and women riding on asses, harnessed with great neatness, I had almost said splendour.

The oxen and cows are small and lean, which is occasioned by the want of pasturage, and the custom of leaving them continually in the fields exposed to the weather. Cows' milk is scarce and almost all used for cheese, which is very good. Some few individuals make a small quantity of butter, but it is entirely for their own use.

The sheep and goats are likewise small and lean, the goats' milk is in general use. The mutton is not very good.

The swine are very large and very fat, they are kept, during the autumn, in the woods, where they feed on the acorns, afterwards they are confined and fed on barley. Pork is in the same esteem with the Minorcans as with the Majorcans.

There are no beasts of prey in Minorca.

Hares are very scarce, but there are great plenty of rabbits. There are a great number of hedgehogs, which the Spaniards eat without any dislike. I have also seen some land tortoises.

The lizards are in swarms; when the weather is fine the walls are covered with them, and they often make their way into the apartments.

The adder and viper are the only kind of serpents which are found in the island, but there are scorpions whose sting is dangerous; they are generally found in the wood piles.

The centipedes appear the moment the candles are lighted, and make their retreat at the break of day; it is said their sting is venomous like the scorpions. The Minorcans always keep in their house vials of oil, in which some of

these creatures are infused, they believe this oil to be a specific.

There are many sorts of *[pideks]*, whose bite is said to be venomous.

Among the birds there is no particularity. There are a few eagles who build their nests in the most inaccessible places in the mountains. There are also some falcons and a great number of owls. The swallows and martins are numerous in summer. Red partridges are plenty, they are excellent till after the harvest, but at that time they begin to eat the wild garlic, and the berry of the mastic tree, which gives them a disagreeable flavour. The quails are very fat in the hunting season. The thrush is excellent. The blackbird, starling, lark, and particularly the sparrow, are very common.

The wild pigeons make their nests in the hollow places of the rocks, the young ones are only eaten; there are also a number of black and white ring-doves. Woodcocks, snipes, wild ducks, and teal, are very plenty through the whole of the winter.

The coasts of Minorca abound with fish of different qualities. The markets are well supplied the year round. Fish is one of the chief articles of the food of the Minorcans, who in general eat but little butchers' meat.

The gold fish is excellent, and very common.

During the summer the coasts swarm with anchovies; this abundance of a kind of fish, which in other places produce an amazing profit, might become a great article of exportation, if the Minorcans knew, or were willing to learn, the simple art of salting them; but they content themselves with eating these fish fresh. Plaice, soals, barbel, flounders, and turbot, are not in such plenty; but lampreys, congers, and eels abound, and are excellent.

In summer, there are a considerable number of sardinias, which the islanders eat fresh; they are unacquainted with the method of salting them.

The ponds contain excellent mullet of an extraordinary size; the Minorcans salt the spawn of the female, and afterwards dry them; this preparation, which they call *botargo*, they eat to create an appetite. The rock-fish, which is found among the rocks on the coast, particularly at the Port of Mahon, has a delicate flavour: this fish is seldom above six or eight inches in length, the body is striped with blue, red, and green, in beautiful shades. The cuttle-fish abounds on the shores of Minorca; the bones are used by

the goldsmiths and apothecaries, the black it affords, which may be easily diluted in water, might be used instead, of bistre, and even in the place of China ink.

Among the shell-fish, the cray-fish is distinguished for its size and flavour; shrimps and crabs are rather scarce. The fish called Bernard the hermit, is one of those which is most esteemed. The sea hedge-hog is the kind of shell-fish most frequently found; it abounds on the rocks, and the Minorcans eat it in astonishing quantities. Of small shells, the most common are muscles, cockles, the *Conchæ veneris*, and the *Nerita*, a species of oyster. The *Hautulus* is often found, but its shell is so fine that it often breaks at the touch. The *Pinna magna* is not scarce: it has within its shell the same brilliancy as mother of pearl, but it is on the outside rough and covered with prickles. The *Pinna parva* is also found here, the surface of which is very shining. I have already mentioned the star-fish and oysters.

CHAP. IX.

SITUATION, EXTENT, COAST, AND ANCHORAGE OF THE PITHIUSIAN ISLES.

THE isle of Ivica is the most considerable of the Pithiuses, and is in most parts high, full of mountains and hills of a pleasing appearance, interspersed with beautiful and fertile vallies.

The principal ports are those of Ivica to the S. E. of the island, and Porto Magno, or Saint Anthony, to the N. W.

There are innumerable small bays, roadsteads, and lesser isles on the coasts of the Pithiuses; a description of which would be of but little interest to the general reader, or indeed to any but those who might desire to have a knowledge of the pilotage.

The isle of Formentera is situated to the south of that of Ivica, from which it is separated by a strait of two miles and a half in width. This island is not of any elevation; it is nearly eight miles in length from east to west, and about as many in width from north to south. It is in latitude $38^{\circ} 40' 30''$ and in longitude $7^{\circ} 65' 27''$ east, from the Royal Observatory at Cadiz.

The remarkable capes and points of Formentera are Espalmader, Prima, and La Mola, which form the east coast of the island, and the points Anguila, Gavina, and Cape Barberra.

Ivica is the largest and best peopled of the Pithiusian Isles; and was called by the ancients Ebusus. It runs N. E. and S. W. being in the form of a pentagon; its greatest extent is seven leagues, by three and a half in width; Ivica is to the north of Formentera two long miles. The latitude of Ivica is $38^{\circ} 53' 16''$ north, and $7^{\circ} 38' 12''$ east, from the Royal Observatory at Cadiz.

This island is divided into five parts, which the inhabitants call quartons, that is to say La Plaine de la Ville, Saint Eulalio, Balanzat, Pormany, and the Salines, or salt-pits.

La Plaine de la Ville is the principal quarter, and has Ivica for its capital, which is at the same time the see of a bishop. The other quartons surround this; the territory of which occupies a league and a half; Ivica is situated to the south, under the cannon of a small fortress, built on a hill, of the time of Charles the Fifth, and repaired in the reign of Ferdinand the Sixth. This fortress is of little importance; the works of which it is composed are nothing more than some bastions and covert ways, without any moat. The interior contains about two hundred houses, inhabited by nearly nine hundred islanders; the cathedral, six churches, a convent, and barracks for two battalions. At the sallyport of the fortress to the east, is the suburb, or the aravalle, of about four hundred and twenty houses, and from seventeen to eighteen hundred inhabitants.

The most esteemed of the ancient authors are divided in their opinions as to the foundation of Ivica; some of them attribute it to the Phœnicians, but the greater part of them to the Carthaginians, and place that epoch about one hundred and seventy years after the foundation of Carthage. The sterility of the soil obtained it the name of Ebusus, which, in the punie tongue, signifies unfruitful.

The Port of Ivica is the principal one of the island; it is large, commodious, and sheltered on every side. The little island of Formentera, which is close to it, defends it against the south-west and southern winds. The island Plane, near the coast, protects it from the east and south-east, and the heights of the hills which surround it, shelter it from every other.

The anchorage has good holding ground, but it is neces-

sary to clear the bottom, which fills up insensibly, and is much hurt by the quantities of ballast thrown from the vessels that come to take salt. This abuse will in time destroy the anchorage at Ivica. The bottom is sandy, and, with the greatest ease, the port might be made one of the best in the Mediterranean.

Besides the capital, this quarten contains about two hundred habitations, forming different small hamlets, of which the population may be nine hundred souls. Ivica furnishes for its defence a company of 120 men, commanded by a captain.

The road of Ivica is delightfully pleasant, and is bordered on each side with vineyards and gardens.

The coasts of this quarten begins at Cape Andreus, and terminates with the Bay Quiseu.

The district of Saint Eulalie comprises Ivica and Balanzat, and is four leagues in extent. The number of houses is at least seven hundred, separated one from the other, and not forming a town or village. There are two churches. The population amounts to nearly four thousand souls, and the militia consists of seven hundred men, commanded by different captains.

The territory of Balanzat is nearly three leagues in extent, and joins Pormanie, Saint Eulalie, and Ivica. There is a church. The number of the inhabitants may be 2,300, occupying 400 houses; the military force of Balanzat consists of a company of 300 men. The space between the port of Balanzat and Ping de Nono joins the side of this quarten.

The district of Pormanie joins that of Balanzat, the Salines and Ivica; its territory is about four leagues in extent; it is chiefly mountainous, but incloses a most fertile plain; it has four hundred and fifty habitations, containing two thousand one hundred islanders, three hundred and fifty, of whom are enrolled for the defence of the country.

The quarten des Salines, which owes its name to the quantity of salt it produces, comprises Pormanie and Ivica. Its territory is only two leagues in extent; its population amounts to about nine hundred souls, and the number of the habitations are two hundred. A company of two hundred men is kept for its defence. To the south of the Salines there is a handsome plain, where the parish church is situated.

A strait of two miles separates the island of Formentera from that of Ivica. The ancients distinguished it by the
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name of Pithiuses Minor. The name of Formentera, which it bears at present, seems to be derived from the considerable quantity of corn which is produced on this little island. It runs east and west; its greatest length is three leagues, but in width it is very irregular, varying from two leagues to one, and being not more than three gun-shots wide in the narrowest part. Its population amounts to twelve hundred islanders, whose habitations are scattered over the face of the country.

The anonymous author of a manuscript, in the year 1620, on the History of the Pithiûsian Isles, in speaking of the Port Sali, observes, that that spot would be very proper whereon to build a city; there is stone and wood at hand. It should seem, in judging by the ruins which are still to be seen, and by the number of wells, that there was a town in existence in the time of the Romans. The same author observing, that at low water the strait could be passed over on foot, is of opinion that it could be easy to re-unite these two islands by filling up this passage. The considerable depth of water in the strait would, however, always present numerous difficulties to the undertaking, which, if surmounted, would have no other effect than to shut up, without any benefit, one of the passes of the Port of Ivica.

The climate of the Pithiuses is soft and salubrious during the summer; the breeze from the sea tempers the heat, and the cold in winter is moderate. As a proof of the excellence of the climate of these islands, they adduce the circumstance of their not having any venomous animals: it has been remarked, that those even which have been brought thither have lived but a short time. It appears to me, that this property may be more justly attributed to the quality of the earth, of which were made the celebrated vases of the ancient inhabitants of the Pithiuses. This opinion is strengthened by observing, that on the coast of Valence, that is to say in the same climate, another island is filled with serpents and venomous animals; from which the ancients named it Ophînga, and the moderns still denominate it Moncalabrè.

The land is in general mountainous and woody; it is capable of any cultivation, but particularly for olives. The shelving of the hills presents an aspect the most favourable of any for the vine.

These islands produce a quantity of corn, wine, and oils, considerably more than serves for the consumption of the

island. The harvest of these articles could be easily made more abundant: the ambition of the islanders, who are of an indolent habit, and possessing little knowledge of the art of cultivation, is satisfied with a produce, the result of the natural richness of the soil, with as little labour as possible.

The flocks of the larger and smaller kinds of cattle are sufficiently numerous for the consumption of the islanders, but the number and quality of the horses, mules, and other beasts of burden, does not answer to the abundance and excellence of the pasturage.

Game is very plentiful in the Pithusian isles; and there is found, about a pond in the island of Formentera, a kind of pheasant, remarkable for the beauty and variety of its plumage.

The coasts abound with fish, of a fine and delicate flavour.

The islanders are supplied with a great quantity of fruits and vegetables from their gardens; among the first the almonds and figs are admired for their quality, and among the second, the water melons are much in esteem.

The produce of flax and hemp is sufficient for the consumption of the island.

Salt is the principal article of wealth to the Pithusians: it is collected in the month of August, and yields, in common years, from 20 to 25,000 modines, of fifteen pounds the modine, which make the amount of one hundred and seventy-five thousand pounds. The salt is conveyed on the backs of mules, to three different points of the coast, whither the merchant vessels come to freight with that commodity.

The inhabitants of the Pithuses are in general of middle size, and active; their complexion is swarthy; they have a great deal of mildness in their character; are good seamen, and occupy themselves principally in navigation. There may sometimes be counted in the port of Ivica as many as sixty xebecks of different burthens.

The islanders have the reputation of being brave, and have more than once evinced their valour against the Barbary corsairs. Their language and costume is, with very little variation, the same as with the Balearians.

With the means of competence presented by the excellency of the soil, one is astonished at the state of poverty of the Ivicans. To the most estimable qualities they unite an indolence, and inconceivable aversion for labour: they

carry their indifference for agriculture to the length of cultivating only as much ground as will serve for their individual wants; but, little advanced in the art of culture, they abide obstinately by their old habits, and oppose themselves to every improvement which may be strange to them, or differ from the method to which they have been accustomed.

I have been made acquainted with the fact, that a Valentin, who came there to settle at Ivica, had began to till a piece of ground, to cultivate various productions according to the manner of his country; but his neighbours gave him a hint to proceed no farther in his work, and even threatened his life, for introducing innovations in the customs of the island. Nature is alone at the whole cost of supplying the Ivicans with food. There may every where be seen plots of ground, of the most excellent quality, entirely fallow. The olive trees grow and give their increase without any assistance from the cultivator; the vine is not more attended; the oil and the wine are made with so little care, and by such imperfect methods, that the islanders do not realize more than one half of the produce. A governor of Ivica tried the experiment of planting some mulberry trees in the island, and of introducing the art of breeding silkworms. The trial succeeded: they produced specimens of silk of the finest and most beautiful kind; but this new branch of wealth was presently lost by the extreme apathy of the islanders.

The Ivicans are acquainted only with those arts which are of the first necessity; the chief object of which is to guard them from the injuries of the weather. Their habitations are without ornament, and their dress unseemly. Those of the islanders who enjoy easy fortunes, procure all their articles of comfort and convenience from Spain and the Balearics. The good Ivicans are certainly untainted by the poison of luxury. In travelling over the island, the stranger fancies himself in a country where civilization had not yet reached. There is scarcely one passable road, with the exception of those which are neighbouring on the different settlements, or which lead to the points of the coast where the vessels take their lading of salt.

 CHAP. X.

CHARACTER, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS OF THE INHABITANTS OF THE BALEARIC AND PITHIUSIAN ISLANDS.

MOST travellers form their opinions of the people of a country, and affirm decidedly on their character and manners, according to what they observe most striking in the external customs in those towns through which they have passed; and their judgment is often influenced by their reception at particular houses. In the first case, we cannot depend on observations so lightly founded; and in the second, one may always perceive either a sentiment of gratitude, or the impression of some dislike. It is not generally in towns and cities that acquaintance with strangers is most easily made, and the national character developed in a manner to be depended on by the unprejudiced observer; but as the traveller draws nearer the simple inhabitant of the country, follows him into the bosom of his family, in his labours, and is with him in his national and religious festivals; he will then become more accurately acquainted with the real character and manners of the people, unsophisticated with the vices and customs of cities.

We are equally deceived, in supposing that it is possible to obtain a knowledge of the genius and character of a people from the systems of the philosophers. The disciples of Plato, in attributing these diversities to the influence of the stars and the climate, never take into consideration the nature of the government, and the mode of education, as a secondary cause. The stars, no doubt, have an influence on man, but do not govern or determine his actions; he does not owe to them the lights of reason, and his will is ever free. If it were not so, what merit would he have in the practice of virtue, or how could he be condemned for his vices. Can we admit the fabulous system of the destinies, or put any faith in the extravagancies of the judicial astrology of the impostors of every age.

We may admit that the climate has some influence on the operations of the mind, as far as the mind participates in the organic affections of the body, and the vibration of the fibres, and has an effect more or less on the circulation

of the blood ; but to believe it the first and absolute cause of the genius and character of a people, seems to me to be a paradox. Do we not see nations, living under the same climate, of very different talents and disposition? And do we not also find a perfect uniformity in other nations entirely dissimilar. In the same topographical point on the Globe, the borders of the Oroonoko are covered with small nations, the diversity of whose genius and character is very striking. There the traveller finds himself among a people who are lively, humane, and loyal ; and eats with them the sweet fruit of the plantane and the date tree. There is another nation rude, warlike, ferocious, and ungovernable ; who offer him as food the flesh, and for drink, the blood of a human creature like himself. A little farther are people whose women are martial and eloquent, and who give laws to the men, who are taciturn and indolent.

Another nation presents the spectacle of nature debased almost to a level with the brute creation, in a people who feed on the very earth, or on a kind of pasté, of which earth forms a chief part. And again, a little distant are another race, so stupidly credulous in the skill of their physicians, that all the goods of the sick are left at their mercy, whether they kill or cure their patients, and the indifference and insensibility of these people is so extreme, that they place under the netting where their sick relative or friend is lain, his share of the provisions, without caring whether he takes them or not. Such are the observations which we find in the history of Oroonoko by Gumilla.

In producing the examples of savage nations, I wished to omit nothing which could determine whether climate has the influence attributed to it. Let us carry our observations to the civilized nations of Europe, and we shall often see a great similarity of genius and character, between nations under very different temperatures ; let us observe the Flemings or Brabantons, and we shall find among them, the habits, the inclinations, the civil and religious customs of the Spaniards, and yet how different is the temperature. In vain has Marsden, in his first volume of the Critical History of Spain, wasted so much erudition to prove the preponderate influence of the climate. We reject the opinion that the movements of the soul are directed by the air, and follow the impressions of heat and cold like a barometer.

The religion and political government of a people are the chief causes which give to the national genius its impulse, its form, and character. With ever so little knowledge of

history, one may be convinced of this truth. Among the pagans we see the people barbarous, unpolished and superstitious, giving themselves up to their passions without restraint. The propagation of the gospel brought men back to the love of truth, and of the social virtues; the people became moderate, just, and humane. After religion, the laws, and government, with the example of those above them, have the most decisive and powerful influence. The Romans, in the reign of Augustus, were invincible; in that of Claudius, indolent and easily conquered; with Nero, cruel; and with Vitellus, vicious; they were just, merciful, and benevolent, from the examples of the Vespasians and of Titus. Without going back to so remote a period, let us consider the times in which we ourselves live. Is it the influence of the climate, which has, of people the most generous, the most humane, the bravest, and the most civilized, made at once a nation, whose excesses, crimes, and follies have astonished and shocked all Europe. Among savage people, who live under the same climate, the variety of dispositions and of character may be attributed to the want of an established religion, for which they substitute the deliriums of their own imaginations, and to the want of wholesome laws, not knowing any but those of force, nor having to their actions any other guide than their own personal interests.

National genius naturally follows the changes of the religion and of the government. The present Greeks, under the Ottoman dominion, are only ignorant, superstitious, and contemptible people, while their ancestors were illustrious in the arts and sciences, and deservedly celebrated both in the times of peace and war.

When religion and the form of government remain without any changes, the national character also continues without alteration; thus the inhabitants of the Baleares, professing the same religion, and subject to the same laws as the rest of the kingdom of Spain, have necessarily the same character, with some little difference, which is the result of a subjection to the Moors, that lasted above five hundred years; these shades of character disappeared on the continent, in consequence of easy and frequent communications with other nations.

Strabo, Diodorus Siculus, and all the historians who have preserved to us the memory of the ancient inhabitants of the Baleares, agree in depicting them as a brave, warlike people, who were extremely expert in the use of the

sling. Some difference, however, may be observed in these two authors; but it must be admitted that Diodorus, in speaking of the inhabitants of these islands, refers to an epoch anterior to their civilization. Strabo on the contrary depicts the people who inhabited the Balears in his time. They lived, according to this writer, in perpetual peace, and in uninterrupted prosperity. Thus he calls them Irenics, or Pacific, not that these people were indolent or effeminate, for they always proved the contrary, and distinguished themselves by their courage and valour, when their enemies compelled them to take up arms.

Diodorus paints these islanders in such dismal colours, that it is with reluctance we copy the picture: "There are some other islands, says this writer, in front of Iberia, called by the Greeks, *gymnasies*, because the inhabitants wear no clothes in summer. They are much given to wine, which the island does not produce, and as they have no olive oil, they grease or anoint themselves with that of the lentisk or mastic tree, or with hog's grease. They are so fond of women, that they will give three or four men in exchange for one: they live in caverns of the rocks, and so far from making use of gold or silver, they will not suffer it to be taken from the island by others; they affirm that these metals were the cause of the death of Geryon, killed by Hercules. When they went to war with the Carthagenians, with whom they were allied, they took their pay in wine and women. In their marriages the relations and friends enjoyed themselves with the bride while the husband got drunk. They cut the bodies of their dead into pieces, and deposited them in urns, on which they placed great stones."

The historian Dameto, fearing that the account given by Diodorus might leave a kind of stain or blemish on the character of his fellow citizens, and not being able to urge a better defence, or rather paying no attention to the remote epoch to which the Sicilian historian alluded, accuses him at once of deception. But of what import is it in the present days, particularly to the inhabitants of the Balears, that their ancestors in the earliest times abandoned themselves to vices that their posterity are far from imitating? or that when they were incommoded by the heat, they wore no kind of raiment; are their descendants on this account the worse clothed?

For my part, I found among the Majorcans many estimable qualities; they shew great respect to strangers, who may,

without fear, travel by night or by day through the country; and even among the mountains, and in the most solitary places. The most hospitable reception is given to the traveller; and in accepting the civilities of the good peasantry, he is in doubt on which side the obligation lies.

Besides the amusements of the theatre, the Majorcans have some particular festivals. The carnival is spent in balls and masquerades, which are given in the great hall of the exchange.

From the festival of St. John to the month of September the streets of the city of Palma present every evening successively a most lively scene. All the inhabitants of the quarter pique themselves on decorating the fronts of their houses with pictures and draperies, and their doors and windows with glass lamps of various colours. Musicians from the bands belonging to the garrison, placed on an amphitheatre, play country dances, which are tripped to gaily and correctly by the young and active. Each side of the street is furnished with chairs for the spectators, little cakes, liqueurs, and other refreshments are carried round and sold in the assembly, and the amusements continue till daylight.

On the twentieth of August they hold a fair for cattle in a large plain, about two leagues from Palma, near an abbey of Bernardine monks. The people go thither in crowds, every kind of conveyance is engaged, even to the carts, which are hired at a dear rate. The plain is covered with little shops or booths, where in the midst of bleating flocks are groups of young people sitting on the grass, under the shade of an olive tree, enjoying a rural repast; at a little distance is another party dancing to the sound of rustic music. If a stranger appears, he is pressed to join in the festivity and partake of the feast, and they are delighted if he accept the invitation.

On the festival of the patron saint they have, in the villages, horse races, and other races of asses and mules; young lads, and even lasses, dispute the prize of agility; a large plain is the scene where these sports are exhibited; an old man with a wand in his hand keeps good order, and decrees the prize to the victor; the men are rewarded with a couple of fowls, &c. and sometimes the prizes are horse shoes; the young girls who are victorious carry home to their mothers an Indian Rebozillo. How real is the enjoyment of these happy peasants; what purity and simplicity in their manners?

ST. SAUVEUR.]

In all the festivals at which the people meet together in crowds there are never any quarrels nor disturbances; a perfect harmony prevails, that at once delights and astonishes the traveller. During the whole of the time that I lived among these islanders, I never knew of any one of them being found guilty of crimes that deserved condign punishment. The thefts and outrages were always committed by foreigners. In the city the same mildness of character is observable, but is unhappily mixed with an interestedness and avarice, strongly marked. There is also to be noticed a strong taint of vanity among persons of a distinguished rank, who acknowledge no superior, and among those mechanics who fancy they have attained the utmost perfection in the art they profess: question any workman, before he answers, he will ask you if at London or Paris they execute any work as well as at Minorca; if you tell him that the superiority is on the side of the English or French, he bursts into a horse laugh and seems to pity your ignorance. Nevertheless it cannot be denied that the Majorcans have genius, with a ready conception, and talents for the arts and sciences.

The Minorcans in old times have always shared the reputation of courage and skill in the use of the sling, with the Majorcans. In the present day these islanders are reproached with a sort of apathy and indolence which they have contracted by the continual changes in different governments, to which they have been subject. The fear of having new masters makes no sort of impression on them. They receive with docility, I had almost said with indifference, the laws which are prescribed them. Content to live in a state of mediocrity, they only desire to maintain their repose. They take very little interest in political events, and always shew a decided repugnance when they leave their native place, to enroll themselves under the colours of the sovereign. If, in the time when the English were their masters, they shewed a sort of activity, it was confined to a small number of speculators and seafaring people, who enriched themselves without much trouble, by enterprizes confined to the coasts of the islands, and those of the continent of Spain. The remainder of the inhabitants preserved their natural indolence. When they were subject to Spain there were no Minorcan vessels fitted out, the facility of cruising was no longer the same, on the contrary there were dangers which they had no wish to encounter, and fame alone could not recompense a people who seemed so little sensible of

its value. A Minorcan is easily dazzled by the smallest degree of success; prosperity does not produce in him emulation, but pride and arrogance. These islanders are at the same time very envious one of another, irascible, given to hatred and revenge, and practising all sorts of shuffling tricks, in short, they have all the defects of people of weak minds, and of characters without energy. The distance that is maintained between the different classes of people is very striking. The noble thinks himself very much above the merchant, and those employed in the merchant-service; while these in their turn affect a great superiority towards the mechanic and the countryman.

The Minorcans live very retired; they, however, give the stranger an hospitable reception, and seem to see him with pleasure, but in reality all their attentions are only for the moment, and they encourage no particular intimacy; their habitations are the residences of tranquillity and solitude; their festivals have the same character with themselves. At the carnival they dress in masquerade in the evenings, and go to the houses of their friends and relations, where they dance to the sound of a guitar or wretched violin. During the evenings of the summer we often see groups of men and women in the streets, and in the centre of each group, a man and woman, who in an awkward manner imitate the Spanish fandango, while the whole of the orchestra consists of a guitar, upon which any one who pleases may play, though he knows little more of the science than running his fingers over the strings. A lamp hung over the door of the house where this group are entertained, gives light to the joyous assembly. Every one who chuses dances in his turn, and pays a trifling sum. And the ball always concludes with the most noisy acclamations.

St. John's day is celebrated by races of horses, mules, and asses, which take place in one of the principal streets of the town. The competitors are of the common people, who are extremely delighted if they win a small silver spoon, or some other trifle, as a prize in these games.

The mariners keep the feast of St. Peter by boat races in the port; those who are first receive the prize, which is a hat ornamented with a coloured ribbon. These spectacles attract a crowd of the inhabitants, who all seem to take a great interest in the performance.

The Minorcans are generally superstitious, and much attached to their religious ceremonies and processions, in which they are always desirous of playing a part. On the

day on which the Fête Dieu is kept; whoever can exhibit themselves in the costume of the Roman warriors; whoever can send thither one of his children dressed to represent an angel, purchase to themselves the privilege of being clothed in a religious habit at the time of their death.

The Ivicans have nearly the same character and customs as the inhabitants of the Balearics; they only differ in their extreme ignorance and coarseness of manners. Nevertheless they are said to be brave and good seamen.

CHAP. XI.

THE INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE OF THE BALEARIC AND PITHUSIAN ISLES, WITH THE DIALECT OF THE INHABITANTS.

IN a country where agriculture, the first of the arts, is still in its infancy, any great degree of skill or industry is not to be expected; neither can there be any diversity of manufactures. The islanders entertain among them those arts and trades which may be denominated of absolute necessity; such as those of building, clothing, &c. The articles which are manufactured in their workshops for exportation are in no great quantity.

The Majorcans manufacture blankets, carpets, and worsted sashes, some of which are sent to Malta, to Valence, Sardinia, and even to America. Neither the quantity nor quality of these manufactures can make them very profitable articles of exportation.

The people wear a sort of coarse cloth, which is manufactured in the island; they also wear a kind of woollen striped stuff, that is equally coarse and clumsily made; a small part of this is sent to Catalonia and Valence.

The whole of their linen cloth is consumed in the island, and does not constitute one of their articles of exportation, with the exception only of the quantity for the use of the navy, which is sent to the ports of Spain. It is in general thought to be good, but is of high price.

The Majorcans manufacture their silk into taffeties, damasks, &c. which are never exported.

These islanders have a great reputation in Spain for their

inlaid work, and they seem to me very well to observe it. Their articles have a strength and solidity which make them very durable; and in many of their designs may be noticed an execution, which must have required as much patience as skill; but it is to be regretted, that in all their labours there is still the fashion of the fifteenth century. In general their designs are mostly executed with great neatness, but the quantity and sameness of them give these articles an antique appearance, which can never please the eye of foreigners, accustomed to see the simple beautiful shapes of modern furniture. Some of the Majorcan articles, of this kind of inlaid work, are expensive, being washed with silver; but these are not so well executed, nor do they look to so much advantage. The Majorcans are not expert in the art of gilding, and there are never to be seen any of those elegant ornaments in bronze and gilt copper, which are so much admired in France.

At Palma there is a free-school, to teach the art of drawing, where the young go to take lessons in the inlaid-work. This establishment is under the protection of the society called "The Friends of the Country."

There are also two printing houses, but they only print the decrees and proclamations of the government, notices to the public, and a journal, in which is announced the arrival and departure of the trading vessels, the state of their cargoes, and the commodities which are to be publicly sold. These printing houses are so ill managed and ill furnished, that if they were united they could not print an edition of the smallest literary work.

The Majorcans make a great quantity of brooms and baskets of the leaves of the palm tree. Although this article is of little consideration, they do not fail to export it to a certain amount for the ports of Spain, and even for Marseilles in time of peace. The ventures of the masters of the merchantmen and of the Majorcan sailors often consist of the leaves of the palm.

There is a glass-house at Palma, where, however, they make only the most common glass. They do not even know how to fabricate the black glass. This manufactory does not export any of its articles.

In making the article of oil, the Majorcans, after having extracted it from the olive, content themselves with pressing it twice from the gross, or crust. This second oil is added to the first: they throw away the gross, from which,

however, they might still draw a considerable quantity of good oil.

They only make use of soft soap, and are not at all acquainted with the method of making it into cakes.

The Majorcans do not derive any advantage from their orange-flowers, angelica, wild celery, or maidenhair, nor from their immense quantity of flowers, not even from the roses. It is now four years since a French distiller, in partnership with a Genoese, set up at Majorca. The Society of the Friends of the Country welcomed them, and gave them sanction, and obtained an exclusive privilege in their favour for the distillation of orange flowers for the term of six years. I left that establishment in a state of forwardness, which gave every promise of success.

An aptitude, and even taste, for the arts and sciences of every kind, cannot be denied to the Majorcan. This island is yet but a new country, where the moral virtues of the inhabitants, and the productions of the soil, are capable of the most happy developement.

The Minorcans and the Ivicans have really no kind of manufacture which could be an article of exportation; the physical productions of their islands are the only articles of which a small portion is sometimes sent abroad.

The Balearics were for a long time the center of a flourishing and extensive commerce. They were not indebted to their local wealth for this prosperity, but to their advantageous situation, between the shores of Africa and Spain. Among the first settlers in the Balearics were the Phœnicians and Greeks: these people were merchants and seamen. They carried with them into their new settlements the spirit of trade, and their skill in navigation. The Romans, more emulous of the glory acquired by conquest than the possession of wealth, gained by deep speculations, continued, however, for their own interest, to protect the trade and navigation of those commercial nations which submitted to their laws. The inhabitants of the Balearics participated in those encouragements. They then became subject to the Moors, the descendants of the Carthaginians, who were so famous for their maritime power; for the wealth which came to their ports, for their extensive commercial connections, and for their astonishing industry and activity. If the Africans, when masters of Majorca, be compared with the conquerors of the Romans and the conquerors of Spain, we may observe, that they have always in a degree preserved the mercantile spirit, which distin-

enriched and enriched their ancestors. It may also be observed that they communicated their particular habits and necessities to the inhabitants of the Balearics, as well, at the same time, as the desire of supplying them, I mean at the epoch of the conquest of Majorca by king Don Jayme the First. They yet preserve in the archives of Palma, records which are authentic monuments of the former prosperity of these islanders. Don Jayme the First, peaceable possessor of the island of Majorca, occupied himself in the partition of the lands; he kept one half, and divided the other among the lords who had accompanied him, and assisted in the conquest. The proprietors were for a long time themselves the managers of their possessions, attending to the cultivation of the grounds, and the increase of their value. Prescribed at first to the enjoyment of the particular productions of the island, they soon afterwards opened their eyes to the facilities which the situation offered for procuring in abundance all that was necessary to their wants. The inhabitant of the country was solely charged with the work of agriculture. The proprietor took up his residence in the town, became speculator, merchant, and navigator; his progress was rapid, and the most flattering success encouraged and recompensed the first efforts of his industry. Commercial establishments were formed at Palma; its port became filled with merchant ships, and these might be reckoned three hundred square-rigged vessels at the commencement of the thirteenth century. New settlers arrived to augment the population of the country, and a great number of the villages which now remain, were built about the same epoch.

The ruins of ancient edifices constitute irrevocable testimonies of remote revolutions. There are not to be seen at Majorca the remains of temples, nor of public buildings. We do not meet with those monumental inscriptions which in Greece help to acquaint us with the religion, laws, and manners, in a word, with the history of the first inhabitants; but here the traveller will find the traces of the flourishing state of the Balearic isles posterior to those events. We cannot but contemplate with interest, the Exchange of Palma, and the grandeur of that edifice. The beauty and boldness of the architecture of which attest the wealth of the commerce, and the progress of the arts, from the thirteenth century. The inclosure of the walls of the city, on the side of the sea, is altogether modern: it separates the Place Terra-Sana from the sea-shore, of

which it formerly made part. There may yet be seen the adjacent gate which communicated with the port. In going from the town to the sea-side is the suburb St. Catharine, inhabited by the sailors: this suburb formerly extended as far as the hill where the Castle of Belvoir is situated, the remains of which may still be seen; and at that time the population must have been much more considerable. The number of seamen is, without contradiction, the most evident proof of the progress and flourishing state of navigation. There is also to be seen some remains of docks for the building of ships, and of storehouses situated on the shores of the semi-circle, which is described by the roadstead to Palma.

From the time of the fifteenth century, the commercial establishments of the Genoese at Majorca were so considerable, as to have an Exchange to themselves. They then occupied the quarter of the city, now inhabited by the descendants of the Jews, who are branded with the ridiculous appellation of (*Chouettes*) owls.

They preserve in the archives of the university of Palma, some very ancient sumptuary laws, which sufficiently prove the progress of luxury, and, at the same time, attest the opulent state of the inhabitants. These laws settled the weight of the chains of gold, which, as at the present time, made a part of the costume of the women.

Majorca, from its particularly advantageous situation, was one of the principal marts for the rich and valuable commodities of India, which were brought by sea from Damiatto, where they were conveyed by the caravans which crossed the deserts. The productions of Asia and of Africa accumulated in the warehouses of Palma, from whence they passed into Spain, France, and Italy. Thus Majorca was one of the chief markets of Europe; navigation and the arts were yet in their infancy; and the indolence of the neighbouring countries payed tribute to the activity of the Majorcans. At length the rays of light, from learning and experience began to spread over the continent; useful discoveries were made, and the encouragements of kings and sovereign princes, excited emulation. Men of genius, and intrepid spirits, conceived that there might be a possibility of reaching the Indies by a way not yet discovered, and springing back directly from thence those productions which they had been accustomed to obtain at second hand. This island thus became only a province naturally lost, almost entirely, the conse-

quence of which it was possessed, at the time when it was a separate and independant state. Their maritime and commercial laws, their customs and duties, all were entirely calculated for the individual interest of the island. But an entire change took place, and Majorca was subjected to the same laws as the other provinces of the kingdom, of which the island was now a part. Palma, at the same time, was no longer the residence of a monarch, whose presence and court attracted thither a number of strangers, which circumstance encreased the wealth of the island, and encouraged the emulation of the islanders, not only in the cultivation of the lands, but also in the arts, commerce, and navigation. A more numerous population supplied labourers for agriculture, seamen for commerce, and soldiers for the defence of their country. The nobility studied the use of arms, and the art of navigation. In the records of Palma may be seen proofs, that there was not a family, of the latter class, which did not at least furnish an armed galley at their own expence. The marine military force was sufficiently strong to give protection to the active industry of their merchants. The Barbarians, who people the shores of Africa, as far as the straits of Gibraltar, now exact from Spain a very humiliating tribute. Several of the same cantons, at that time, payed tribute to the Majorcans. The prosperity of the island, which is now only a small part of those states which compose the monarchy of Spain, insensibly languishes. The wars of the Aragonian kings first struck at their prosperity, by draining the island of men and money. Majorca, like the other provinces, being obliged to furnish its proportion. The expulsion of the Moors from the states of Spain was fatal to the prosperity of the kingdom. This measure, dictated by an absurd and perhaps ill-judged zeal for religion, by considerably diminishing the population, took from agriculture, from the arts, commerce and navigation, a great number of men, who carried their activity and industry among people who knew their value, and who offered them the comforts of a home, with the encouragement their labours deserved, free from the difficulties they were subject to in their native island. Majorca thus probably lost more than any other part of Spain by this emigration. How much has France had to regret the revocation of the edict, which in proscribing the protestants, enriched with our industry, kept away people who knew so well how to profit by advantages.

The discovery of the Cape of Good Hope made a change in the course from India; Majorca ceased to be the mart, and was itself soon reduced to receive commodities at second and third hand. The progress of navigation in neighbouring countries at length entirely deprived the island of those advantages it might derive from the activity of its navy. Such have been the causes of the decline of the commerce of the island of Majorca.

The commercial connections of the inhabitants of the Balearics do not extend at present beyond the shores of Spain, Africa, and France, in the Mediterranean. The Majorcan articles of exportation are oils, wines, brandies, almonds, oranges and lemons, beans, capers, and a small quantity of cheese.

The amount of the oil exported, is valued at about eleven millions of French livres. These oils are almost entirely conveyed to Spain and Marseilles in Majorcan vessels; a very small quantity is also exported to the North, to England, Holland, &c. but the English and Dutch come hither for it themselves.

The amount of the wines is valued at near six hundred and eighty-five thousand and seventy livres; most of which is exported in ships, which make it a part of the stores for their own use: a small part is conveyed to the continent of Spain, and some inconsiderable quantity to America.

The brandies are exported under the Majorcan flag to Barcelona, Malaga, and Cadiz, from whence they go to America. The English, Dutch, the Danes, &c. also come sometimes to Majorca for these brandies. The amount of the exportations of this commodity is about one hundred and seventy-seven thousand livres.

There are 14,000 milliers, or thousand weight, of oranges and lemons exported under the Majorcan flag to the southern provinces of France; the amount of the value exceeds two hundred thousand livres.

The amount of the cheese which is exported to Barcelona, and some other ports of Spain, is at most from thirty-five to forty thousand livres.

Almost the whole exportation of almonds goes to Marseilles: this article may amount to sixty thousand livres.

Most of the capers are also taken to Marseilles, and the amount may be from six to seven thousand livres.

Of beans, which is the only sort of pulse exported to Spain, the quantity may be valued at about forty thousand livres.

Twelve millions, two hundred and two thousand, five hundred and ninety livres, is the total amount of the physical productions of the island of Majorca, which are articles of exportation, to which the industry of the islanders adds but very little.

The Majorcans receive in exchange for their physical productions, corn, rice, salt provisions, tobacco, sugar, coffee, woollen and other cloths of different qualities, manufactured silks, and merceries of every description, drugs, gun-powder, planks, and wood for building, iron and other articles for the use of their shipping.

The grain imported from Africa amounts to the sum of seven hundred thousand livres.

The rice, salt provisions, sugar, and coffee, which they have almost entirely from France, amount to about six hundred thousand livres.

The cloth of different sorts, silks, and mercery, which are supplied mostly from the southern parts of France, are valued at nine hundred and seventy-seven thousand, nine hundred and fourteen livres.

The drugs, gun-powder, tobacco, wood for building, iron, arms, and materials for the navy, &c. which are almost all imported from Spain, amount to the sum of seven hundred and seventeen thousand, five hundred and seventy-eight livres.

The sum total of the importations in the island of Majorca, is nearly two millions, nine hundred and ninety-five thousand, four hundred and ninety-two livres.

The balance in favour of the Majorcans is, according to these calculations, nine million, two hundred and seven thousand, and ninety-eight livres, or 38,362*l.* 8*s.* 8*d.* sterling.

It is well known, that the wealth of a commercial people depends on the value of their local productions, and those which their industry furnishes to other nations, in proportion to the merchandize which they receive; it is thus that the balance is settled, and that one may judge how far a nation ought to extend its commercial connections in importation as well as exportation. If commerce be the source of wealth, it is also proved, that it contributes to the decadence of a nation, from the time when it becomes too much extended; it then receives much more than it can give in exchange for its own produce.

This fact is but too sensibly experienced by the Majorcans: poor in the natural produce of the island, and having neither works nor manufactures which might supply the

deficiency. They export very few articles of their own growth to those nations, from whom they receive not only all that belongs to the convenience and enjoyment of life, but even most of those articles which are necessary to their existence.

The Minorcans export a small quantity of cheese, which is sold in Italy; the amount does not exceed twenty thousand francs, of French money. They obtain from the fleeces of their flocks a surplus of wool, which may be valued, at most, at the sum of thirty thousand livres. The honey, wax, and salt, produce about ten million livres above the consumption of the islanders. The exportation of wine, added to what is consumed in the island by the troops and foreigners, which is always paid for in ready money, amounts to about three hundred and fifty thousand livres. The islanders thus acquire, from the quantity they send abroad, only the sum of four hundred and ten thousand livres.

They import the articles of wheat, oxen, sheep, oil, brandy, tobacco, rice, sugar, coffee, and spices; woollen and other cloths, iron, planks, cordage, gun-powder, tar, &c. The amount of the importations is evidently greatly superior to that of exportation; the balance, therefore, cannot be in favour of the Minorcans.

The consumption of the English, at the time when they were in possession of Minorca, had given to the commodities of this island an extraordinary value, which put into circulation a very considerable sum, to which were added the profits the islanders derived from the sale of those articles which came from abroad. The economy of the Spaniards in their manner of living has put a stop to these advantages.

The Minorcans might nevertheless ameliorate their situation, by industry and labour. However infertile the island may be, there are many articles which the cultivation of the soil might grow to advantage.

Cotton succeeds very well, and it would be easy to increase the produce of this plant, so as to make it an article of exportation to a considerable amount. The Maltese export from their island as much as fifteen thousand quintals, besides what is used in the country. The soil of the island of Malta is assuredly not more fruitful than that of Minorca, but the Maltese have an activity which does not belong to the Minorcans. Why do they not cultivate with care and attention a number of olive trees, whose fruit would so

Well recompence the labours of the countryman. The Minorcans have their oil from Majorca; they might probably be soon saved this expence, and have at the same time a surplus of their own produce.

The capers abound in every part of the island, and yet the Minorcans derive no advantage from them beyond their own consumption. How easily might they make of them an article of exportation?

Flax and hemp succeed perfectly well: might not the quantity be encreased? Why do not the Minorcans manufacture themselves the cloths which they are now obliged to have from abroad? They might probably carry this branch of industry still farther.

The canes and reeds, so common in the island of Minorca, are of that quality which is so much sought after by the drapers; and yet the Minorcans neglect to profit by this advantage.

The slate, which is found in abundance in many parts of the island, also presents a valuable article of speculation.

The free-stone, of which they have such quantities, might serve for the ballast of their outward-bound vessels, and then be sold abroad for other freight.

Mastic, aloes, and many other drugs, grow in pure waste, for the Minorcans make no use of them, and yet they might constitute articles of commerce.

Bees would thrive exceedingly in an island which so abounds in aromatic plants: those of Minorca produce excellent wax, and the honey is in much esteem. It would certainly be to the interest of the Minorcans to extend this source of wealth, by encreasing the number of hives.

The Minorcans might follow the example of the Majorcans, and derive a profit from the saffron of the island, an article of which they now make but little use.

Besides their own consumption, these islanders might export a considerable quantity of fruit. Their oranges, lemons, figs, almonds, and pomegranates are of a quality not at all inferior to the same fruits of Majorca. It would be very easy to increase the number of these valuable trees.

Salt might be made, without any trouble, a very interesting article of exportation, as the Minorcans have a means of procuring it, which is very easy. In many places on the coast the rocks are flat, and raised a little above the surface of the sea; when the wind blows fresh, the waves cover them from one end to the other, so that in time, the

salt eats into the softest parts, and forms a great number of small cavities, separated one from the other by the parts of the rock which have resisted its power; these cavities being filled with the sea water, one day's sun-shine is sufficient to dry them up, and form the salt. Women and children are employed in the evening to collect it, and fill the cavities again with water.

I have already mentioned the numerous kinds of fish with which the coast of Minorca abounds; these, if salted, might make an important article of exportation.

Navigation, in particular, presents to the Minorcans the means not only to liquidate their debts with foreigners, but another source of certain benefit. The advantages derived from navigation have raised Holland to a degree of power, which has placed it in a situation to rival those nations whose commerce was most extensive. Navigation alone has maintained the small republic of Ragusa, whose territory is so confined, and almost every where covered with barren rocks. The inhabitants of this little state were like porters or carriers of the commerce of the Mediterranean. They had deserved the confidence of the merchants of every trading nation, and their ships were not inactive in port. The Minorcans have, more than any other people, the means of successfully imitating the example of these navigators: as they are almost all seamen, the port of Mahon presents every convenience for the building and repairing of ships. Accustomed to live frugally, the victualling of these vessels would not be very expensive: they could then afford to take in freight at a price which would always give them the preference.

At the time when the island was in the possession of the English, the Minorcan merchants and seamen enriched themselves by the prizes taken by their armed vessels. Government particularly encouraged these cruisers: the warehouses of Minorca were overstocked with merchandize of every description, which was exported to great advantage into neutral countries, and smuggled into the ports of the powers which were armed against the English.

The commerce and navigation of the Minorcans necessarily suffered from the existing circumstances at the time when they sailed under the British flag; their ships were always ready to intercept the merchant vessels of Spain and France, in the Mediterranean; thus they brought into their country considerable wealth. To enrich themselves, at the expence of the English trade, it would

how be necessary to establish cruizers in distant latitudes, as merchant ships near home are generally well protected by the naval forces. On the other hand, their own merchant ships can scarcely escape the English cruisers, which are continually on the coasts of these islands. It is not surprising, therefore, to see the ports of Minorca full of unarmed vessels, which are laid up to rot in a state of inactivity.

The completion of the Lazaretto will restore, or rather fix, the prosperity and trade of the island. The wealth of the Spanish ships compelled to go thither to perform their quarantine; and the daily arrival of foreign vessels, attracted thither from the same motive, will be the means of circulating considerable sums in the island. The naval works will also be another source of riches to the Minorcans, when peace shall have given liberty and safety to the navigator. When the commerce of different nations shall have filled the Mediterranean with its flags, the port of Mahon will offer them a shelter against the tempest, and will find them the necessary materials for the purpose of refitting after a voyage. The Minorcans will profit by the facility of their situation, and of the excellence of their ports; their industry and activity will acquire a new spring. If the ship-building under the English is a source of wealth to that nation, what may we not hope from this island becoming the focus of naval repairs for numerous foreign nations. Perhaps, I repeat what I have already said, that to give, in some measure, the first spring to that prosperity, it would be necessary for the court of Spain to grant some years of freedom to the port of Mahon. The island of Minorca, poor in local productions, can only supply manufactures, for which it is by no means qualified. It is by her shipping only that Minorca can enrich herself; it is to that point that the activity of the inhabitants should be turned. In giving support and encouragement to these views, Spain would presently reimburse herself for the loss of duties taken off for a time only; the charges of keeping the island of Minorca would be no longer a burthen on the public treasury. Every thing languishes at present; and it is proved, that the duties received from commerce and navigation are very insufficient for the expences for the use of the soldiery employed by government.

The inhabitants of the Pithiusian Isles, content with finding enough to satisfy their immediate wants, keep up but

a small share of commerce with strangers, nor even with their neighbours: it is with difficulty that they can be prevailed upon to export even a small quantity of woollen cloth, which is almost entirely consumed by the navy of Spain, and some oil which goes to Majorca; and these trips are only the particular speculations of some captains of vessels. The laws of the country but too much favour the natural indolence of the inhabitants, and their want of inclination for any foreign trade. The exportation of corn, oil, and some fruits, are prohibited. These islanders, accustomed to sow only the quantity of corn which is necessary for their own consumption, are subject, in those years when the crops are not plentiful, to the want of bread; and in those seasons that the harvest is abundant, they lose the surplus of their consumption, and, with the greatest indifference, see it rot in their store-houses. Would it not be wiser to suffer the exportation of this corn to Majorca, which, in times of scarcity, import it from Africa? On reflecting on the advantageous situation of the Pithiuan islands, between the two continents of Europe and Africa, and considering the goodness of the soil, watered by an infinite number of excellent springs, the mildness of the climate, the distribution of the habitations dispersed over the country, and thus, not forming towns or cities that are too populous, a distribution so favourable to the labours of agriculture; considering these circumstances, can one conceive the indigent state of the Ivicans? Nature has herself to supply their wants, and does it not seem, at the same time, to reproach their indolence.

The language of these islanders is nearly the same as that of the Catalonians, from which it differs only in some particular words, and in the pronunciation of many others. A Catalonian is understood perfectly by a Majorcan, a Minorcan, and an Ivican. At the epoch of the conquest of this isle by king Jayme the First, a considerable number of Catalonian families came and settled here, and introduced the use of the language of their own country. Muntaner, an historian, cotemporary with the expedition of king Jayme, affirms this fact, and adds, that there remained at Majorca, of the Moors who formerly possessed the island, only a certain number of slaves, employed in the cultivation of the lands, and a few families in easy circumstances, who had embraced christianity. Benimelis and Dameto, Majorcan writers, derive the dialect of their country from the Limosin: but certainly there is not the smallest simi-

larity between these two dialects. On the contrary, a great resemblance and conformity, and even a perfect sameness, may be observed between the Catalonian language and that which is spoken in the southern provinces of France; the same turn of expression, the same pronunciation, and almost the same words. The trifling difference which is at present observed between these two languages, proceeds from the habitual connections which consequently existed between the Catalonians and the Castilians. They still preserve, in the records of Barcelona, some acts written entirely in the language of Languedoc, and other dialects of the southern provinces of France. If there remained any doubt of the similarity and conformity between the two languages, it would be removed on seeing a person from Languedoc arrive, for the first time, in Catalonia. He would be able, without the help of an interpreter, to express his wants; at the end of eight days he converses fluently, and in less than a month he is a perfect master of the language. Coming from Catalonia to the Balearic isles, one is surprised to find any difficulty in making oneself perfectly understood, although we meet with a great number of expressions which are entirely the same as in Catalonia and Languedoc. But the language of the inhabitants of the Balearic is now a mixed jargon, composed of the dialects of the several nations which have successively been in possession of these islands. The words of which this language is composed are a sort of monumental records, that may serve to follow the series of the many revolutions which these islanders have experienced. Unless one had been accustomed from infancy to live in a neighbouring country to the Balearic, it is difficult to speak a language, which is that of Languedoc, embarrassed with words which are Syriac, Carthaginian, Greek, Roman, Vandal, Arabic, Catalonian, and Castilian. It is not easy to distinguish from which of these dialects the pronunciation which most prevails among these islanders is derived. A foreigner finds it very difficult to acquire, because of the nasal and guttural sounds. For the letter *l* is often substituted the letter *s*; and the letters *a* and *e* are perpetually confounded. For example, they will pronounce *sa camie*, for *camisa*, the shirt; *es pare* for *el padre*, the father, &c. Nevertheless, they give the true pronunciation to the article in other expressions; they do not say *es rey*, the king; *es bisbe*, the bishop; but *el rey*, *el bisbe*. In some villages of Majorca, as at Pollenza, the letter *l* never loses its sound in the

pronunciation of the article. These defects of language are observed in every country, where a distance of eight or ten leagues makes a difference in the pronunciation; and the language also varies very materially. A stranger would find himself very much at a loss, on his arrival at Minorca, if the islanders of a certain rank were not acquainted with the Spanish language, and the common people sufficiently so, if not to speak it, at least to understand it. At Minorca we find many persons, particularly among merchants and seamen, who write and speak very well both French and English. The length of time that this island was possessed by each of these nations, has made the use of these languages very familiar to the inhabitants.

As for the Ivicans, they differ in their jargon by a more guttural pronunciation, and very few of them understand any Spanish.

I observed with surprise, and some regret, that in these islands, while the men pride themselves on the study and use of the Spanish language, the women obstinately persist in that of their own noisy jargon; even when they know the Spanish. One can only impute this ridiculous habit to the extreme vanity of the sex, and not to that diffidence which is always an ornament to beauty.

CHAP. XII.

COSTUME OF THE INHABITANTS OF THE BALEARICS AND PITHIUSES.—ANTIQUITIES OF THESE ISLANDS.

IN reflecting on the variety of costumes which are still preserved by the inhabitants of the Balearics, I fancied that I discovered, as in their dialects, some interesting vestiges of the many revolutions they have experienced. Without referring to what is said by Diodorus, of the custom of the first inhabitants going naked, let us take them from the time of their civilization. Their clothing was then composed of the skins of animals; from whence is the epithet of *Sisrinodites*, which was given them by the poet Lycophron. At the present time this dress is still to be seen among the Majorcan shepherds. The husbandman, careless about modern fashions, preserves the habit of his ancestors: and

his costume is a kind of monumental record of a very ancient date. His *calotte* or cap, his short hair, his loose coat, his large breeches, and his shoes without buckles, recal to the mind the Greeks, who were the first allies of the inhabitants of the Balearics. The sort of short petticoat, which they wear over their breeches, appears to be the *sagum* of the Romans, in time of peace.

These islanders have not adopted the use of the *red*, a net in which the Goths confined their hair. It is rather surprising that this head-dress, which is so universal in Spain, has not gained admittance in these islands, which have mostly been peopled from the time of the conquest of king Jayme by Catalonians, amongst whom the *red* is still a distinguishing part of the costume. Of the habit of the Goths the islanders have only retained the tunic, which the ancients called *stringe*, and which they wore over their other garments, in their country employments.

Their costume has also some resemblance to that of the present Greeks, who are under the dominion of the Turks: it recalls to our remembrance the reign of the Moors in the Balearics. The islanders differ particularly from the Greeks in the length of the habit, which they wear much shorter; and they have not adopted the custom of wearing whiskers on the upper lip, nor do they wear the turban.

On festival days the peasant lays aside his usual costume, and appears in the Spanish dress of the time of king Jayme the First. On seeing the black cape, the large plaited ruff, covering the shoulders and part of the breast; and the vast hat, turned up on each side, resembling that worn by the ecclesiastics of the present day, one may almost fancy that we are still in the thirteenth century. We find exactly this costume in the many portraits of that age. The simple inhabitant of the country, in these vestments, the connection of which with the time of his ancestors he is totally unacquainted with, lives happy in the bosom of a numerous family, and knows not the poison of the luxury which corrupts the morals in cities and towns.

At Papua, at Mahon, and even at Ivier, there does not remain the smallest vestige of the costumes of the ancients. The *latelava* is no longer known but from history, though Strabo asserts that it was invented by the inhabitants of the Balearics. Those who inhabit the towns and cities of these isles, prefer the European habit, particularly that of the French, and they are very fond of wearing a military uniform, with the exception, however, of the Minorcans.

The women in the capital, as in the other islands, have the same costume, from the marchioness of the first family to the meanest domestics; which they wear in the house as well as abroad. The head-dress is a kind of nun's double handkerchief. The upper one, which covers the head, is longer than the chin, and leaving only the face to be seen, it spreads over the shoulders, and reaches half way down the back. The two corners are crossed in front on the bosom. This head-dress, as simple as becoming, is called *rebozillo*, and is the part of the costume on which the women set the highest value. These *rebozillos* are generally of fine muslin, scalloped. Many of them are valuable, from the quantity of needle-work with which they are ornamented, and the expensive lace with which they are trimmed. The women among the common people sometimes wear them made of printed calico, but more generally of a coarser muslin, and trimmed with a coloured ribbon. Women for a mourning habit wear a black *rebozillo*, for a near relation, and a white one, trimmed with black ribbon, for a more distant friend.

The Minorcan women wear over this head dress a second *rebozillo*, made of coarse red cloth, ornamented with ribbon, which is generally yellow. This *rebozillo* is only worn without doors; it is called the *manteta*.

The women of Ivica wear the *rebozillo* of a yellow colour; it is either of coarse cloth, or printed calico of a very ordinary quality. A stranger who sees, for the first time, the women of these islands, cannot help admiring the beauty of their hair, which falls below the waist, flowing at length, carelessly in the wind. But what is his surprize when he is informed that these beautiful tresses are only artificial? His astonishment increases when he sees the most charming young women carry the ridiculous folly so far as to sacrifice their own beautiful hair, the finest ornament of nature, to their prejudices in favour of this absurd fashion, and to take it from the head to which it belonged, to wear it as a false tail. What purpose, it may be asked, does this absurdity answer? It is in vain to try to account for it. The islanders themselves can give no reason for the practice. When I have attempted to find fault with the head-dress of their women, they retorted on me the wigs worn by our ladies, and indeed they seemed to have some reason on their side. In fact; nothing can be more disgusting than the head of one of our *elegantes* covered with false hair. They endeavour to excuse this

absurdity by the pretext of convenience; but we are nevertheless at liberty to believe that vanity alone gave birth to this fashion. Our French women, I hope they will pardon me, were not so wise as the foxes in the fable, who would not attend to the counsel of that fox among them, who, having lost his own tail, advised them to cut off theirs.

At Ivica it is not unusual in the country to meet women wearing a cow's tail, added to the remains of her own hair. We may reasonably doubt whether this fashion extends beyond the Pithiuses. The Minorcans always wear a corset of black silk, stiffened with strong whalebone, which confines the body tightly, and often prevents the proper growth of the bosom, from which proceeds too many inconveniences, and probably this is one of the causes of the painful and fatal *accouchemens* so frequent at Majorca. The sleeves are also worn very narrow, and terminate above the elbow. They are made open in front of the arm, and seem to be only what sempstresses call basted together: but in a mourning habit they are sewed up close; they are ornamented with several buttons of gold or silver, and sometimes of precious stones. This is a part of Majorcan extravagance. These tight sleeves preventing the free circulation of the blood, do not leave the arm room to acquire its natural roundness and beauty. In general, the Majorcan women are narrow chested, and have the arm ill-formed and thin. May this observation of a stranger, in other respects an admirer of their beauties, merit their indulgence. The corset is ornamented in front with two rows of silver buckles, placed longways, and answering the purpose of our laces, to fasten the dress close. But it is only the wives of tradesmen and mechanics who wear these buckles; the ladies have substituted a stomacher, fastened down the sides with ribbons, or ornamented with very small buttons. The women of a lower class and servants wear a half sleeve of cloth, over the sleeve of the corset. The petticoat is generally black; but sometimes in the house they wear them of white or printed calico. The black petticoats are ornamented with fringes of silk, cotton, or worsted, and sometimes only with a black ribbon. They are always worn short, to show the lower part of the leg. The Majorcan women pride themselves on always being well dressed about the feet; their shoes have very high heels. The ornaments worn by rich persons, and those in easy circumstances, consist of a necklace of pearls, which passing under the *rebozillo*, falls below the stomach: a

medal or cross of gold is generally attached to it, and sometimes a Maltese cross. They wear round the waist a gold chain, which on one side hangs the length of the petticoat, and is terminated by an ornament of the same precious metal, on the left side, tied with a ribbon, or fastened with a small gold chain to the corset; they wear a medalion, enclosing the portrait of the father, the husband, or the lover, but more generally the picture of a saint. The Majorcan women also wear watches, and load their fingers with a number of rings. When they go out, they cover themselves with a long muslin veil, or one of black cloth, if they are in mourning. This they call the mantilla. They always carry in one hand a long chaplet, ornamented with a large gold tassel, at the end of which hangs a cross or medal.

The Minorcans show less taste and fancy in their dress. They also wear corsets, and flowered silk petticoats; some of them are even embroidered with gold or silver. They plait them very full on the hips, and make them as stiff as possible. Thus nothing can be more encumbered than a Minorcan lady in a gala dress; when they sit down, they remind me of our old ladies in hoop petticoats.

The women in the country generally wear under the chin, where the rebozillo is fastened, a huge bow or knot of ribbon, which they call the floque. This ornament is often made of leather. This floque seems to be a part of the thick ruffs formerly worn round the neck by the ancient Spaniards. The women of the peasantry never go out without a large hat, like that worn by the men, but ornamented with a black velvet ribbon, the ends of which fly in the wind behind the head. They, like the women of the lower class in the towns, have a sort of apron of striped calico, the whole of which is gathered close, and seems only to be a thick plaited ornament down the front of the petticoat.

At first sight, the rebozillo is the most striking part of the costume of the women of these islands. This head-dress, of which no resemblance is now to be found, except in convents of nuns, was worn in France from the time of the Merovingians until the time of the reign of Charles the Eighth. It was worn in Spain till the reign of Charles the Fifth. We still see on the monuments of Poplet the statues of princesses represented with the rebozillo. Saints of those days were also painted in this costume. The rebozillo has been introduced in these islands by the

Malonian women who settled here, at the time of the conquest of king Jaymè the first. Father Mariana relates that the Spanish women changed the rebozillo for the mantilla in the reign of Philip the First, in the year 1506.

According to Armstrong, the antiquities of the Balearics may be divided into three classes. In the first, should be placed those of the most remote periods; in the second, those belonging to the Romans; and in the third the antiquities of the Moors.

In such distribution, this author places in the first class the monuments, which the islanders call the altars of the gentiles. I saw several of them in the island of Minorca. The description which Armstrong gives of one of these, which is situated two miles to the E.S.E. of Alayor, seems to me to be very exact.

It is built on an eminence, and surrounded by a wall of large flat stones, perfectly well joined together. This enclosure forms a circular plan of about two hundred yards diameter. In the center is a large heap of rough stones, piled one on another without any cement. They form a cone of about thirty yards diameter, and nearly the same in height. There is a cavity in the base, the entrance of which faces the south, and into which a man may enter by stooping. They have cut around this pyramid a way about three feet wide, by which one may go to the summit, a large flat space, where seven or eight people may easily stand. From hence may be seen, to the south, a view of the sea, and on every other side an extensive prospect of the country. Within the enclosure, at some distance from the pyramid, are two square stones, one of them placed perpendicularly, and the other horizontally on the top of the first. The one on the top is sixteen feet long and seven broad, and is twenty inches in thickness. The other seems to be nearly the same size, but it cannot be measured very exactly, because it is partly sunk in the earth. There is no trace of a chisel, and it is thought that there was never any inscription nor other sculpture on this monument.

These two stones, from their situation and form, seem to have been an altar. The flat stone probably was used for the sacrifices: but as it was very high above the level of the ground, and consequently out of the reach of the priest, there is no doubt but that there must have been steps by means of which he ascended. This conjecture is founded

on the position and shape of the stones which are found at the foot of this altar.

As for the purpose for which the islanders might have raised these heaps, Diodorus of Sicily tells us that the inhabitants of the Balearics piled stones on the graves of the dead: and it is thought that they only erected monuments in honour of distinguished persons, and very probably on opening these pyramids there would be found human bones. These heaps of stones present a kind of mute history, before the invention of writing, which serve to perpetuate the remembrance of their great men, while the songs which are transmitted from father to son may be esteemed as the commentaries. In raising these kind of pyramids, the islanders seem also to have had another purpose in view. Such monuments are always placed on eminences, and so distant from each other, that they may be seen from every part of the country. It is probable that they were at the same time intended for so many watch towers, by means of which they could discover the approaches of an enemy, and from which they might make signals to put the inhabitants on their guard, and give them time to join, and meet the foe, or to hide themselves in the caves of the rocks. These pyramids were also called by the islanders "athal-lais;" a name totally inapplicable, if they were not used as watch towers.

M. Cambry, in his work on the Celtic monuments, in the Etymological Vocabulary, gives the following explanation of the word atalaya:—"Atalaya, the name of the altars or stone burial places of the Balearics, in the form of the nipple of a woman's breast. Of the Spanish atalaya, which signifies, 1st, Tower or turret of observation; 2dly, Sentinel placed in the atalaya, from whence atalays, to keep watch. These words appear to be derived from the Celto-Gaulic. Adail, edifice from *a* augmentation, and *tal*, elevated, and, from the Spanish termination *aya*, which answers to the French termination *aille*, in *antiquaille*. Thus the atalaya of the Balearics is the *agec speculatorum*, or field of sentinels, in the Bible; the *menticulus* of the Moabites, which Eusebins called the watch tower of the country, and which St. Jerome has translated a high place. The atalaya answers, therefore to the word, as well as to the thing, with the *altare* of the Latins, Festus says, "*Altaria ab altitudine dicta sunt, quod antiquè dus superis in ædificiis, a terra exaltatis sacre faciebant,*" which entirely explains

the atalayas, and confirms the etymology. From the Celtic *tal*, elevated, comes the French *taille*, *hauteur*; the Spanish, *tallo*, *tailla*, *talludo*, of grand size; *talle*, *tige*, and the Latin *tallere*, elevated, raised."

If we consider the situation of this isle, and the many nations to which it has been subjected at different times, we must be convinced the inhabitants must have lived in a state of continual alarm. It was therefore very natural for a people thus exposed, to contrive an expedient which would serve at once to gain time, to repulse the enemy, or to shelter themselves from injury.

The way made round these pyramids to ascend to the summit, and the cavity which might serve as a retreat to those appointed as watchmen, leave no doubt that these monuments were raised as much for the protection of the islanders, as to honour the memory of their dead.

The situation of the altars near these pyramids naturally explains itself. It appears plain that the priests, whose duty it was to appease the wrath of the Gods, or invoke their favour by their prayers and sacrifices, placed them on the spot from whence the danger was first discovered: respect for religion caused them to surround these altars with a wall, to protect them from the approach of either men or beasts.

The simplicity of these altars is a proof of their antiquity. In the first ages of the world, all the ceremonies of religion were comprised in offering sacrifices to the Gods. The altars were only made of earth and some stones placed on an eminence. The Celtic druids multiplied these altars wherever they went; and numbers of them are still to be seen on the mountains of Scotland, in Ireland, and many other places.

The construction of pyramids built of rough stones of different shapes and sizes, placed one on another, as if by chance, and without any cement to join them together, are manifestly cycloplan.

I remarked in some places of the island of Majorca, the ruins of walls composed of enormous stones placed one on another, without cement. The aqueduct of ~~Tenelle~~ *Tenelle*, at Pollenza, also seems to be of a construction anterior to that of the Romans.

Numberless medals have been found in ~~the Balearies~~; and, according to Vargas, among such as have been discovered in the island of Majorca, are distinguished those

of Metellus, which are mentioned by Fulvius-Urscinus, Vaillant, and others. Dom Thomas-André de Gussemé mentions, that, according to Goltzius, a medal was struck in commemoration of the conquest of the Balearics, in the year of Rome 630, by the consul Quintus Cecilius Metellus, surnamed the Balearian. On the principal side is a Q, and near it a Jupiter's head crowned with laurel: on the reverse is a Victory crowning a trophy, with this inscription round it, "Q. Metellus Balearic." This medal, which being consular, should have been struck at Rome, where the family of Cecilia resided, seems to be the same as that mentioned by Vargas. The medal of Canopus is very scarce; but some of Augustus, with the palm, are to be seen; some of Crispus, some of the consularies M. Balbus, Hostilius, Sacerna, and Decius, with the counter-sign of Majorca, little known and very scarce. Some of Gordian, the African; some of Domitia and of Pulcheria; and about five hundred of gold and silver have been found at Santagui, forming a collection from the time of Galba to that of the change of the empire. There have also been found several medals with unknown letters, and which are supposed to belong to the time of the Celtes.

In Minorca have been found medals of the Phœnicians, the Carthaginians, some of the kings of Macedon, of Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, some of Alexander, and of Lysimachus. Some Celtiberian, that is to say, belonging to the cities of Spain, situated for the most part in Celtiberia, and whose unknown character makes any explanation very difficult; some belonging to the cities of Grèce, as Athens, Ephesus, Samos, and others; some of Nismes, Marseilles; some belonging to the municipalities and Spanish colonies under the dominion of the Romans: in short, some of all the emperors, empresses, Cæsars and tyrants, who at different periods governed the empire of Rome, either a part or the whole, from the time of its beginning until the sixth century of the christian æra. Several of the imperial medals, and those of the colonies had counter-marks, as D. D. P. D. and others.

Don Pédré Alonse O'Crouley, in his Castilian translation of the Essays of Addison on Medals, p. 215, places among those unexplained a Latin medal of Minorca in the following terms, translated from the Spanish: "Minorca on a medal not understood, a head which might be supposed to be that of Neptune; a man on a horse, with a crown of laurel. In the exergue, Minor . . . a little ef-

faced." It seems to belong to the island of Minorca, which is called *insula minor*, or *Balearis minor*, or simply *minor*, in an inscription. This medal is of bronze.

It is astonishing, that there has never since been found in Minorca any one of the same kind. It seems to belong to the island, and probably was struck there, according to the custom of the ancients. The head of Neptune might characterize the first inhabitants of Minorca, who distinguished themselves by their cruises at sea, from the time of the Romans: but as for the man on horseback, on the reverse, we find nothing in the ancient writers to support the conjecture of an affinity with the ~~same~~ inhabitants. On the contrary, it is well known that they always fought on foot. Their principal weapon, the sling; was not at all proper to be used by a horseman. There is no author that makes any mention of their horses.

Among this quantity of medals, there are many of gold and of silver; but the most of them are bronze of different sorts.

They account for such an extraordinary number of medals, by the favourable situation of the island for the passage of the east with the west, and of Spain with Italy and Africa. As another cause of this quantity of medals, they mention the arrival of several Spanish families, who, at the beginning of the fifth century, driven by the Suevi, the Vandals, and other barbarians, sought an asylum in the island of Minorca. The bishop, St. Severus, who at that epoch filled the see of Minorca, mentions this event in one of his letters.

They still continue to find in this island medals, which are almost all of the Roman emperors and empresses; some of them are rather scarce, such as those of Galba, Clodius Albinus, the young Gordian, the African; Quintillius, Aurelian, and Severina his wife; Helena, the wife of Constantius Chlorus; Elia Flacilla, the first wife of the great Theodosius, &c. &c. Medals of Rome and Constantinople, of the time of Constantine the Great, are also very common.

As for the medals of the time of the Arabs, which were found in the Balearics, they were almost all of silver; many of them have been melted down, and it does not seem that any of them have been explained.

There was also found at Minorca a gothic medal, struck, according to all appearance, at the end of the thirteenth century; it is of small bronze; on one side, is a circle, is a

read turned to the left, wearing an open crown with flowered work, and round it the inscription, *Alphonſus rex*. The reverse side presents an eſcutcheon, with the bars of Arragon, and the inscription, *Minoricarum*. We meet with other medals, where the head ſhews the full face. No numismatic author has mentioned theſe medals. The moſt probable opinion is, that they were ſtruck by the order of Alphonſo the Third, king of Arragon, in memory of the conqueſt of the iſland of Minorca, which was taken from the Moors in 1286.

On the ſide of the iſland of Majorca, near Pollenza, in a place which is ſtill called the colony, there have been found ſome remains of antique ſculpture; among theſe is to be diſtinguiſhed a head in tolerable preſervation, which is ſuppoſed to belong to a ſtatue of Metellus.

Among the ſtatues of brönze I ſaw a ſmall Heracles; a leg and a finger of extraordinary ſize, finiſhed with a great deal of care; a figure of a man bathing; and a ſmall bull. I was ſhewn alſo ſeveral cinerary and lachrymatory urns, with ſome ſepulchral lamps, all of them of earth.

They have alſo diſcovered in the iſland of Minorca, ſeveral ſmall ſtatues in bronze, repreſenting the Egyptian, Greek, and Roman divinities, ſuch as Diana, Cupid, Fortuna, Isis, Apis, Osiris, &c. but none of them are of very fine workmanſhip. The ſtatues ſhew that the worſhip of theſe divinities was eſtabliſhed in the iſland of Minorca.

Almoſt the whole of the literary curioſities have been taken away by the different nations, which have alternately poſſeſſed the iſland of Minorca during the laſt century; it is principally in the collections at London and Madrid that the moſt curious relics of the ancient hiſtory of the Balearics are to be met with.

At Minorca there have been found a great quantity of vases, ſepulchral lamps, and cinerary and lachrymatory urns, all of a red earth. We know from hiſtory, that the Romans were not the only people who had the cuſtom of enclosing the aſhes of the dead in urns. It was alſo eſtabliſhed among the Carthaginians and Celts. The whole of theſe vases differ not the one from the other neither in form nor materials. It is difficult to diſtinguiſh whoſe aſhes theſe urns encloſe; ſome of them bear inſcriptions, in Roman characters, which decide the queſtion as far as relates to them. Vargäs, in his deſcription of the iſland of Majorca, has two Roman inſcriptions mentioned by M.

Serra, of Majorca, in a dissertation on the antiquities of that island. In the originals of these two inscriptions several letters were entirely effaced, and spaces left, which M. Serra thought he was able to fill up. The authenticity of these two inscriptions is not proved. One may doubt also, that they were found in the island of Majorca. It is from this uncertainty that I have omitted giving them a place in this work.

Several Roman inscriptions have been also discovered in the island of Minorca, but most of them are so much effaced that it is impossible to read a single word.

In one of these inscriptions only the first line can be distinguished :

Q. CORNELIO...

It is a reasonable conjecture, that the rest of the inscription express the gratitude of the islanders for the services rendered them by this Roman.

Another, in better preservation, is consecrated to the memory of Lucius Fabius :

L. FABIO. L F.
Q VIR
AED. II VIR. III
FLAMINI. DIVOR
AUG. R. P. MAG
OB. MULTA. EIUS
MERITA

This inscription is engraven on a grave-stone, which is fixed into the wall of a house at Mahon.

According to Titus Livius, there was a city in the island of Minorca, at the epoch of the punic war.

Pliny the elder, who wrote towards the end of the first century of Jesus Christ, speaks of three cities which were then in existence in the island of Minorca, and which were called Magon, Jannon, and Sanicera; and, according to St. Severus, bishop of Minorca, the two first were founded by the Carthaginians.

Several modern writers have followed the opinion of bishop St. Severus; others insist that one might with equal justice give their foundation to the early Phœnicians, that they might serve them for ports in the ~~voyages they were~~ constantly making to Spain. To this day there have never been found any ancient medals of these cities in characters,

either Phœnician or Carthaginian, which could assist to decide the question.

Armstrong speaks of another city under the name of Labon, of which no vestiges remain to point out the place where it had existed. According to that author, one might suspect that the city was the same as the present Alayor; the modern name seems to assist the conjecture; the consonants *b* and *v* are often confounded in pronunciation by most of the people of the South. Instead of Labon, it should be pronounced Lavon, which might have in the course of time been pronounced Laion, then Laior, and at length Alaior. This etymology may seem ingenious, but it does not account for the silence of ancient writers on the existence of Labon.

Neither does there remain any traces of the place where Sanicera, a city mentioned by Pliny, was situated. It is conjectured that it was built on the shore of the port Fornels; but no discovery has been made to support this opinion.

It is certain that the Minorcans were in the pay of the Carthaginians, and signalized themselves in the wars which they had to sustain; it is therefore the more surprising, that in the number of Carthaginian medals which are found in the island of Minorca, there are none which were struck at the epoch of the foundation of the three cities, whose names ancient writers have transmitted to us. It is, however, not impossible that such medals may yet be found in some future researches. It is not long since Phœnician, Celtiberian, and Roman medals, were found in Spain, of which there was no prior knowledge.

As for the antiquities belonging to the time of the Moors, there are still to be seen at Majorca some ruins of buildings which are in tolerable preservation. The country house belonging to an individual at Eufabia, was formerly, according to general opinion, a pleasure house of a Moorish prince, who reigned over part of the island of Majorca. In fact, the ancient part of this habitation has all the characters of the construction and taste of the Arabs, both in the architecture and ornamental parts.

Over the gate of the convent of St. Marguerite, may be seen a stone bearing an inscription, the characters of which are Arabic; but they are so much effaced that it cannot be read.

The monks of La Merci preserve a vase which they say,

belonged to the time of the Moors; it is a sort of earthen ware.

At Minorca are the ruins of a Moorish castle, on Mount Agatha. Over the gate of one of the towers is an inscription in the Arabic language, but there remains only some almost effaced traces.

On an arch which is at the east extremity of the parish of Mahon, is to be seen the following inscription in Gothic letters:

XVI. . . . FEBROARII
ANNO. DNI. MCCCLXXXVI.
PO. PRESA. LA. YEA. DE. MENORCA.
R. N. A. M.
NOS. DON REY. D' ARRAGO.

This inscription, which I have copied in more intelligible characters, refers to the conquest of the island, on the 16th of February, 1286, by Alphonso, king of Arragon. It settles to a certainty the epoch of that conquest.

Near the centre of the city of Mahon are the remains of a gate, which is manifestly Arabic; it serves as an entrance to a street called the Old Ravalle.

There is no doubt but that the Moors, during the time of their dominion in the Balearics, built a number of mosques and other edifices which have been destroyed by time, and probably more by the fanaticism of religion, at the epoch when christianity was established in the island. The custom of the Moors of using stones of an enormous size in the construction of their buildings, which were placed one on another, without regularity, and almost such as they found them on the earth, or as they dug them out of the quarries, strengthens the opinion that they were the authors of most of the *athalaïas*, or watch-towers, which are found in the island of Minorca.

CHAP. XIII.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE BALEARICS AND PITHIUSES.

Before
Christ. **T**HE most ancient names by which the Balearics and Pithiuses were known, all of a Phœnician or Greek origin, leaves no doubt but these people were

Before the first that settled there. This opinion is confirmed by Strabo. According to this author, the Boeotians and the Rhodians, a short time after the famous siege of Troy, came and established colonies in the Balearies.

663. The Carthaginians, masters of the Pithiuses, attempted to invade the Balearies, but they were not able to stand against a shower of stones hurled with astonishing celerity by the islanders whose principal weapon was the sling.

They renewed the enterprize, and were not more fortunate in a second expedition, which was from the ports of Sicily.

Himilcon and Hanno, Carthaginian generals, in going from Carthage to Spain, arrived at the Balearies; they did not attempt to land by force of arms, but presented themselves as friends: subtil in their conduct; the mildness of their manners conciliated the minds of the inhabitants, who seemed to be untameable, yet they submitted without resistance, to a yoke thus presented with demonstrations of friendship. They saw with satisfaction the settlements which their new guests busied themselves in forming. The Carthaginians laid the foundations of two cities in the island of Minorca, to which they gave the names of their most famous generals.—Magon built Mahon, and Hanno founded Jammou, or Jamma.

406. The natives of these islands took a part under the banners of the Carthaginians, and five hundred renowned slingers followed them for the first time, when they went to Sicily, to punish the Agrigentines for their treachery; they continued their services in the army which marched against Denys, the tyrant of Syracuse. In this second expedition, these islands furnished a new reinforcement of three hundred slingers. These troops signalized themselves, and had the greatest share in the success of the Carthaginians. Hanno, in the entire conquest of Sicily, received succours from the Balearies, which determined the victory in his favour.

These islanders served with the same zeal in the expedition of the Carthaginians against Pyrrhus, whom they compelled to abandon Sicily.

250. Conquerors of the Romans, the Carthaginians re-

Before Christ. turned in triumph to Majorca, puffed up with their victories, they behaved with arrogance, and conducted themselves in such a manner as to cause the inhabitants to revolt, take up arms and drive them out of the island. Hamilcar, by his mildness calmed the resentment of the islanders, and they renewed their connection with the Carthaginians. Three hundred Majorcans fought at the famous battle against Consul C. Luctacius; a battle which made the Romans masters of Sicily, and terminated the first Punic war.

Hannibal commenced the second. At the siege of Sagontia, this general reckoned in his troops eleven hundred and fifty slingers, from among the inhabitants of the Balears. These islanders were in his service when he carried his forces into the heart of Italy, and had always a distinguished share in his victories.

214 The Romans having passed into the continent of Spain, Cneus Scipio, master of the sea, failed in an enterprize against Iyica. He was more fortunate at Majorca, whose inhabitants received him, joined their forces to his troops, and fought under his banners against the Carthaginians, who had the Minorcans on their side, and had considerable succours from them, which they payed for, as they had done before, by giving them women and wine, which formed the predominant passions of these islanders.

The Carthaginians driven from the peninsula, the Majorcans recovered their former liberty; but they only made use of it to give themselves up to piracy. Their excesses attracted the attention of the Romans; the consul Quintus Cecilius Metellus set out with a fleet to put a stop to their depredations.

This general, on his appearance before Majorca, had taken the precaution of covering the outside of his vessels with leather; this sort of barricade ~~deaden-~~ ened the force of ~~the~~ stones which were hurled by the slingers, and made them of no effect. Quintus Cecilius Metellus conquered the whole of the island, which obtained him the honours of victory, and the surname of Balearicus. Before his departure from Majorca he founded the cities of Palma and ~~Po-~~ lenza, giving them the title of colonies. This gene-

ral added to the two thousand Romans which he left on the island, three thousand others, which he sent for from the continent.

After
Christ.

The islanders continued faithfully attached to the republic, and their s'ingers served in its armies all the time that they enjoyed the blessings of peace. At the time when the republic was the prey of internal divisions, and was distracted by the civil wars, the Majorcans refused to take part with Sertorius, who came to invade Ivica, and joined the party of Cneus Pompey, the son of Pompey the Great, who defended the senate.

Majorca shared the fate of the other provinces of the republic subjected by Cæsar, and remained under the government of the successors of that conqueror. The famous deputation sent to Rome by the inhabitants of the Balearics, to implore the succour of some Roman legions against an extraordinary number of rabbits which made devastation among the wheat in the little island of Conejera, was in the reign of Augustus.

These islands, always under the dominion of Rome, made part of citerior Spain, and were dependant on the jurisdiction of Tarragon until the end of the reign of Constantine.

From the time of this emperor, until the death of Theodosius the Great, these isles had a particular government, the principal seat of which was at Majorca.

427 The division of the empire; the imbecility of Honorius; and the ambition of Saint-Hilicon, opened the gates of Spain to Gunderic, king of the Vandals, and made these islands an easy conquest.

The Africans, ever eager for conquest, having vanquished the continent of Spain, attempted several times to make themselves masters of the Balearics; and, after failing in many enterprizes, at length succeeded. The possession of these islands considerably augmented their marine forces. Their vessels began to infest the seas, and to exercise an insulting superiority. Charlemagne armed his forces against these pirates, and vanquished the barbarians, destroyed their fleets, and took the islands from them. Nevertheless, they soon recovered the possession of them; but were not able to prevent a party of Nor-

- After
Christ. man adventurers effecting a landing on the island of
Majorca, where they committed many depredations.
- 993 The Africans, become the peaceable possessors of
the Balearics, fitted out an expedition to Catalonia.
Twice they besieged Barcelona, and at length took
the place, after a battle, where Count Don Borellos
lost his life.
- 1102 Count Don Armengol met the same fate in an
enterprize which he attempted against Majorca.
- 1108 The Africans had arrived at such a degree of
power, that they were become absolute masters of
the sea. Puffed up with their successes, and depend-
ing on their force, they no longer kept any mea-
sures, but practised every species of robbery and
piracy. Their audacious excesses excited the re-
sentment of all the christian powers. The Pisans
first armed against them, took from them the island
of Ivica, and possessed themselves of part of the
island of Majorca.
- 1115 The Africans having again possessed themselves
of Majorca, Don Raymond Beringer the Third,
Count of Barcelona, having assembled some troops,
came and attacked the island, of which he subjected
the greatest part, after taking the capital. Obligated
to return immediately to his own estates, he con-
fided the keeping of his recent conquest to some Ge-
noese, who sold it to the Barbarians; who, again
- 1147 masters of the island, began their depredations
afresh on the coast of Spain, and particularly in-
festesd Catalonia. Don Raymond, Count of Bar-
celona and Prince of Arragon, seconded by the
King Don Alphonso the Second, and Don Pedro,
his son, took up arms and prepared an expedition
against the Balearics, but it was not carried into
effect.
- 1204
- 1229 The Barbarians continued their piracies, and de-
solated the shores of the continent, and at length
excited the indignation of Don Jayme, the son of
the king of Arragon; which young prince formed
the plan of taking the Balearics from these proud
Africans, whose continual depredations alarmed and
impoverished the neighbouring nations. Don Jayme
assembled an army of sufficient force for the enter-
prize which he meditated. He sailed from Salona, a
port of Catalonia, to the shores of Majorca, where

After Christ. he effected the landing of his troops, although he met with strong resistance from the Africans. He soon attacked them in a second battle, in which he lost Don Raymond de Moncade, one of his generals, in whose valour and experience he had great confidence. At length, after a number of actions of less importance, and after a siege, where the Moors performed prodigies of valour, the gates of Majorca were opened, and the rest of the island soon submitted to the force of arms. Don Jayme divided the lands between the noblemen who had accompanied him and assisted his conquest. Some Barbarian families remained in the island, and retained in part their possessions.

- 1250 Don Jayme, after having settled the administration of the island of Majorca and established a governor, and after having given his orders for the building of the cathedral church, returned to his estates on the continent. But soon the preparations of the king of Fez, who threatened the invasion of the island, the loss of which he so much regretted,
- 1292 brought Don Jayme again to Majorca; who, when the alarm had subsided, returned to the continent. The conspiracies of a certain number of Moors who remained in the island, the disturbances they had excited, recalled once more Don Jayme to Majorca. This handful of rebels returned to their duty; and the prince sent deputies to Minorca, to engage the inhabitants to place themselves under the jurisdiction of his laws. The Minorcans consented to become tributary to the crown of Arragon. The two islands of the Balearics then passed as a feudal tenure from the crown of Arragon, under the dominion of Don Pedro. Infant of Portugal, the son of Don Sancho the First, who, at the same time, added the island of Ivica to his possessions. The imbecility of Don Pedro soon changed the fortune of the isles, Don Jayme was again in possession of his rights; and Majorca had for the fourth and last time the good fortune to regain its sovereign. This prince consulting a love of glory, and the indulgence of a perhaps ill-judged devotion, formed the plan
- 1269 of an expedition to the Holy Land. He assembled his troops, and the island of Majorca furnished five thousand men and three men of war.

After
Christ,
1279

Don Jayme, when he died, divided his possessions between his two sons. Don Jayme the Second had for his share the Balearics and Pithiuses, and part of the estates on the continent. The will of Don Jayme the First, surnamed the Conqueror, gave him the independant title of king.

1185

To appease the resentment of Don Pedro, his eldest son, the prince, consented to acknowledge himself his vassal. Don Pedro having, in the mean time, undertaken an expedition against Africa, touched at Minorca, and endeavoured to gain over the governor of that island, who was feudatory of Don Jayme. This governor pretended to enter into the views of the king of Arragon, and engaged to give up to him the island of which he had the government; but, in the mean time, he informed the king of Majorca of all the manœuvres of his brother. Don Pedro swore to be revenged for this perfidy; declared open war against Don Jayme; raised an army, and prepared to invade his territories; but death surprized him at the moment when his plans of vengeance were ready to be put in execution.

1286

1287

Don Pedro dying, left his crown to Don Alphonso, his son; and at the same time transmitted to him his hatred against Don Jayme. Alphonso carried into effect the intentions of his father, and invaded the Balearics and Pithiuses.

The conquest of Minorca cost him more trouble than any of the rest of the islands. He met with an obstinate resistance on his landing. The Moors anticipated the time of his coming, and waited for him on the shore. After a bloody battle, he succeeded in driving before him the troops of the almoxariffe, or Moorish governor. They, however, continued fighting as they retreated, and gained the fort on Mount Agatha, where they defended themselves. Alphonso soon besieged it; but, after having without effect performed prodigies of valour, and despairing of taking the castle by force, he formed the resolution of reducing it by famine. The garrison were almost without provisions, and could not receive any from Africa; they, therefore offered to capitulate. The conditions were, that those Moors who could pay their ransom should have the liberty of returning to Africa, and that the rest should be

After Christ. reduced to slavery. The fort of Saint-Agatha was given up the 17th of January 1287. The almoxariffe, his family, and, at most, about a hundred of the most distinguished Moors embarked, and were lost on their passage. The remainder of the Moors, to 1298 the number of about twenty thousand remained in slavery. Alphonso divided the lands of the vanquished between those who had seconded him in his enterprize; and christianity was the only religion tolerated in the island.

Alphonso, who was not more than twenty-seven years of age, died at the moment when he began to enter into an arrangement with Don Jayme, his 1311 uncle. Don Pedro the Second, of Arragon, the successor of Alphonso, in compliance with the solicitations of many powerful princes, reinstated his grand-uncle in his estates; but exacted of him, that he should acknowledge himself his vassal.

Don Jayme reigned peaceably till his death. His eldest son having retired into a cloister, his crown passed to Don Sancho, his second son. Don Ferdinand, the third son, was gone to the east with those troops out of Catalonia, who were as celebrated for their exploits, as for the unfortunate fate they there met with. Don Sancho reigned without disturbance, in spite of the manœuvres of his enemies, who endeavoured to displace him, and to prejudice him with the court of Sarragossa. This prince ended his days in 1325. It was in the same reign that they fix the martyrdom of the good Raymond Lully, whose name is mentioned to this hour with the greatest veneration by the islanders.

Don Jayme, the son of Don Ferdinand, and nephew to Don Sancho, ascended the throne. Don Jayme, of Arragon, taking advantage of the minority of this prince, set up fresh pretensions to the kingdom of Majorca. The young monarch consented to hold his crown under him, and thus terminated all disputes; he also furnished troops in an 1328 expedition against Sardinia.

Don Jayme, of Arragon, when he died, left his crown to Don Alphonso the Fourth, father-in-law to Don Jaymé, king of Majorca, who also held his kingdom under him. After the death of Don Alphonso, of Arragon, the king of Majorca sent some

After
Christ. succours to the princes of the continent, whom Al-bohasen, who remained master of a part of Spain, had compelled to take up arms. A squadron of eight galleys, well armed, went from the ports of Majorca, and carried a reinforcement of troops.

Don Pedro, who had ascended the throne of Arragon, contrived the ruin of the king of Majorca; he first declined his assistance to support him in his disputes on the subject of the principality of Montpellier, for which the king of Majorca had refused
1339 to pay homage to the king of France; and taking advantage of the embarrassment of his brother-in-law, deprived him of all his estates on the continent. He concealed his ambition by accusing Don Jayme of not having appeared before the court to which he had been cited; and thence took occasion to declare that he had forfeited his right to the crown. He even went so far as to accuse Don Jayme of having had, on former occasions, a design of seizing his person. Resting on these motives, Don Pedro
1343 raised an army, landed at Majorca, conquered the troops of Don Jayme, and took possession of the whole island, which he added to the crown of Arragon.

Don Jayme, thus reduced to the last extremity, implored succour from France, and obtained from thence some troops, with which he landed in the island of Majorca; but he lost his life in an action where he fought desperately. This prince was the last of the independant kings who reigned at Majorca.

1351 The Balearics, thus added to the crown of Arragon, the islanders furnished troops in all the wars which that power had to sustain. Their ships made part of the naval force which the king of Arragon sent to sea against the Genoese; and the Majorcans contributed not a little to the defeat of these republicans before Constantinople.

Peter of Castile, irritated by the captures made by the Majorcan fleet, or at any rate making it his pretext, declared war against the king of Arragon, and appeared first with his squadron before Barcelona; but being compelled to retire by the army of Arragon, his fleet attempted, without success, a coup de main. on the island of Ivica, but was soon

After Christ. obliged again to retire, on hearing that the king of Arragon had proceeded to Majorca,* and pursued him with a superior force.

This war, in which the Majorcans played a principal part, drained them of both men and money; and cost them 140 large vessels, which they lost in different engagements.

1375 However, Don Jayme, king of Naples, the son of the last king of Majorca, endeavoured to regain the possession of the estates of his ancestors. The differences between Arragon and France, the troubles which disturbed Castile, all seemed to favour his plans, when death put a stop to his views, in the year 1375.

The date of the celebrated Balearic clock, which belongs to the town-hall at Palma, answers to this epoch. Many absurd stories have been related by different authors on the subject of this clock, which by some is supposed to have been brought from Babylon or Jerusalem, in times as remote as the days of Solomon. This piece of mechanism may certainly be considered as one of the most ancient of the kind.

In 1391, the Jews experienced in Spain a most cruel persecution, which extended to those who were settled at Majorca, and the quarter of the town which was inhabited by these people, was pillaged without mercy.

Four years after this, Don John, of Arragon, flying from the plague, which ravaged the kingdom of Valencia and Catalonia, took refuge at Majorca; and died there a year after his arrival.

In 1398, the court of Arragon armed to make reprisals on the Algerine corsairs. The fleet which sailed from the ports of Majorca consisted of seventy sail, of which thirty-five belonged to Valencia and Catalonia; the other thirty-five were fitted out by the Majorcans. Their cruise was on the coasts of Africa, the shores of which they ravaged to a great extent, and retired in the autumn, enriched with many considerable prizes.

From the year 1394 to 1404, the island of Majorca experienced a sterility; the miseries of which they could but little mitigate by the succours they obtained from the neighbouring countries. Majorca al-

After Christ. drained of men and money, by the continual contri-
butions with which they supplied the king of Arra-
gon in the several wars, began sensibly to decline in
power and splendour. The progress of the Africans,
who had freed themselves from the tribute which
was payed by the cantons of Tunis, Bugis, and Con-
stantine; the increase of their trade, and their fre-
quent incursions in the island, completed the ruin
of Majorca.

At the death of Don Martin, the last male of
the family of the Counts of Barcelona, several
princes laid claim to the possession of the Balearics.
Majorca was, at the time, the prey of intestine dis-
sensations. In an assembly of the nobility, where
Saint-Vincent Ferrer was called to decide, the crown
was decreed to Don Ferdinand, Infant of Castile,
nephew of Don Pedro the Fourth, king of Arragon.
Saint-Vincent Ferrer, whose opinion had decided
the suffrages in favour of the prince, dedicated him-
self to the service of the church, and preached the
tenets of religion in the island of Majorca. They
still preserve, in the cathedral of Palma, the pulpit
of this saint.

The commerce of the Majorcans continuing to
decline, the island soon felt the want of the grain
which they no longer imported; the harvests were
not sufficient to supply the wants of the people.
Majorca, torn by intestine commotions, was unable
to pay a considerable sum which was owing to Bar-
celona. The forces of the island were continually
drained by the supplies sent to Don Alphonso, of
Arragon, the son and successor of Don Ferdinand.
This prince had formed the enterprize of getting
himself crowned king of Sicily, after the death of
queen Jane. His army was defeated by the Ge-
noese, by whom he was made prisoner, as well as
the king of Navarre. This prince, released from
his imprisonment, again attempted the conquest of
Naples. The Majorcans furnished him with four
galleys and thirteen hundred soldiers.

Under these unhappy circumstances, Majorca had
experienced new misfortunes: the country people
irritated with the burthens they had to bear, and
displeased with the pride and stiffness of the nobi-
lity, entered into a confederation among themselves.

After
Christ.

and hoisted the standard of revolt. The nobles were compelled to take to arms. Don Alphonso sent troops from Naples to quiet these disturbances; but during three years there was a civil war among the Majorcans; the ravages and desolation of which extended all over the country.

The families of different great houses on the continent had taken to arms, as had several princes whose estates were situated near the Balearics. Don John, of Castile, fought against Don Henry, his eldest son; Don Charles, son of Don John of Navarre, attempted the crown of his father; and Charles, king of France, had to punish the revolt of his son Louis.

- 1460 Alphonso, king of Arragon, died in those commotions, and left his dominions to John of Navarre, his brother; Charles, son of John of Navarre, retired to Majorca. The islanders made expensive preparations for the reception of this prince, but who, being at length restored to the favour of his father, returned to Barcelona. His premature death, which was attributed to poison, was the cause of an insurrection in a part of the kingdom of John of Navarre. The fury of revolution communicated itself even to the island of Minorca. The Majorcans, in this critical juncture, armed and furnished a number of troops and ships for Don John. The insurrection of the Minoreans was quelled after a few skirmishes. Four squadrons were collected about this time on the coasts of Arragon and Catalonia. The first, consisting of twenty sail, was fitted out by the rebels. The second carried the French flag, and seconded the operations of the first. The two others, fitted out by the Majorcans and Minoreans, assisted the cause of Don John.

- 1473 The Majorcans were scarcely extricated from these ruinous wars, when they were afflicted with the plague, which was brought there by a merchant ship from the Levant. This scourge almost desolated the island.

- 1479 Don Ferdinand, the Catholic, succeeded Don John of Arragon in all his estates, and in the kingdom of Castile. This prince founded a university at Majorca, which had the same laws, and enjoyed the same privileges, as that at Lerida. During the

After
Christ.

whole of the reign of this monarch, the Majorcans served under his colours with distinction. These islanders signalized themselves at the taking of Grenada and the conquest of Naples, and in the expedition of Don Pedro of Navarre against the Africans. Ferdinand having prepared for his expedition to Naples, the Castilian lords refused to accompany him in his voyage. Twenty of the richest nobles of Majorca had attended Ferdinand at his court. The islanders completed the signal services which they had done this prince, in furnishing him with fresh succours against Barbarossa, who besieged Buzes, and was on the point of becoming its master.

1483

In the reign of the successor of Don Ferdinand, the country people of Majorca again revolted, under the pretext that they alone supported the expences of the island; that the nobles, free from every tax, exercised over them the greatest tyranny; ~~they~~ therefore took up arms, and forced the viceroy to quit the island, and take refuge in Ivica.

This second civil war was still more grievous than the former. The people, thus given up without restraint to their passions, committed the greatest excesses. The nobles, on their side, opposed them with the most vigorous resistance. Alcadia offered them an asylum, where they defended themselves till the end of the troubles, which terminated with the punishment of the principal rebels.

Internal peace being established in the island, under the reign of Charles the Fifth, the islanders became exposed to the incursions of the Barbarians. Barbarossa, thirsting to be revenged for the loss of Tunis and of his cruizers, appeared before Majorca with a squadron of eleven galleys. The fires which the islanders kept up on many points of the coast, made Barbarossa believe, that the victorious fleet of the emperor was not far distant. Hence, fearing he should be engaged in an action, where he had every thing to risk, he thought proper to retire, and made an attempt on Minorca, of which he made himself master.

In 1541, the emperor, having projected an expedition against Algiers, assembled his naval forces in the ports of Majorca, from whence he set sail.

After number of the Majorcan nobility embarked in his
Christ. fleet. The expedition was not fortunate, but drew on the islanders all the resentment of the Barbarians, who determined to ravage the shores of Majorca; and attempted several times, but without success, to take possession of Alcudia and Polenza: they were also repelled in an attempt to make a landing on the side of Valdemusa and Andraiga.

For twenty years afterwards the island remained at peace, nor did any thing particular happen till 1662, when it again furnished 300 men for the war against Portugal.

1665 During the whole of the reign of Charles the Second, the island of Majorca was at peace with all powers, but suffered perpetual divisions among the magistrates and clergy concerning their privileges. These differences occasioned many long debates, and ruinous law suits."

At the beginning of the 17th century, the archduke Charles subjected the whole of Arragon. Majorca was given up to general Lach, who commanded a fleet of forty ships. The other islands also submitted to the house of Austria.

After the taking of Barcelona, marshal Berwick sent the chevalier Ashfield, at the head of ten thousand men, who took possession of Majorca. The islanders made no resistance.

The Majorcans served in the war of succession, but did not take any part, the detail of which would be interesting. The Marquis de St. Philippe, in his Commentaries on the War of Succession, and Quincy, in his Military History of the Reign of Louis the Fourteenth, makes honourable mention of the services of the Majorcans.

In 1708, the English, under the command of major-general Stanhope, took possession of Majorca, which they preserved by the treaty of Utrecht.

The French, commanded by marshal de Richelieu, took this island from the English in the year 1756.

In 1798, Minorca was given up to the English by the Spanish governor.

The treaty of Amiens has again put Spain in possession of this island.

TRAVELS
THROUGH
SEVERAL PROVINCES
OF THE
RUSSIAN EMPIRE;
WITH AN
HISTORICAL ACCOUNT
OF THE
ZAPOROG COSSACKS,
AND OF
BESSARABIA, MOLDAVIA, WALLACHIA,
AND THE
CRIMEA.

BY BARON CAMPENHAUSEN,

MAJOR OF CAVALRY, IN THE SERVICE OF HIS IMPERIAL
MAJESTY, AND MEMBER OF SEVERAL ACADEMIES AND
LEARNED SOCIETIES.

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ADVERTISEMENT.

IN the following sheets I venture to present the Public with an Account of some Provinces of the Russian Empire, which are less known to foreigners, and even to many natives of Russia, than they deserve to be; and I believe it will be found, that most of the local peculiarities which I describe, have either escaped the observation of, or have been intentionally passed over in silence by, former travellers.

A long residence in different parts of the immense empire of Russia, has given me an opportunity of collecting a great variety of information relative to that country. The materials which I have accumulated would fill several volumes; but I have thought it incumbent on me to confine myself to those details, whose authenticity I have ascertained by personal observation, or the evidence of persons to whose veracity I could depend.

The Historical Account of the Zaporog Cossacks, and of the Roscolnicks, has not, as far as I know, been noticed by any former traveller. I have compiled that of Moldavia, from documents which are preserved in the Archives of Jassy. During the last war with the Turks, I had the good fortune to get possession of several Accounts of the Defterdars, or Turkish treasurers, which have enabled me to ascertain the revenue of the Sultan with tolerable accuracy.

TRAVELS

THROUGH

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

PART I.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS, RELATIVE TO RUSSIA IN GENERAL.

RUSSIA, which was but little known 150 years ago, appeared on the political arena of Europe in the beginning of the eighteenth century. Its sovereigns assumed an uncontrolled influence in the affairs of the North; and its adolescent energy seemed to threaten the existence of all the surrounding states, as soon as time and the advancement of culture should have developed its latent force.

The arts and sciences, which had hitherto limited their genial influence to the south of Europe, were invited to and cherished on the banks of the Neva and Irtysh: new and inexhaustible resources presented themselves to the commercial world. The manners, the luxury, the virtues, and the vices of the West, forced their way through the deserts of Asia, and penetrated to the inhospitable shores of the Frozen Ocean. The Russian empire is remarkable for the vastness of its extent; containing 168 degrees of longitude, from the eastern coast of Kamschatka to the mouth of the Dwina; and 35 degrees of latitude, from the Frozen Ocean to the mouths of the Volga, the Don, the Kuban, and the Dnieper, all of which empty themselves into the Caspian Sea, the Pontus Euxinus and the Palus Mæotis. In this immense tract, neither the islands which belong to Russia, nor the promontories and capes, neither the Polish provinces and Courland, nor Georgia, which has voluntarily submitted to its sway, have been reckoned.

In the year 1785, the surface of the Russian empire contained 1,949,373 square miles, at 15 miles to the degree, of which one-fifth is in Europe, and the remainder in Asia. :

The Polish provinces, Courland and Georgia, have since that period been incorporated with the empire.

In such an extensive tract, it is natural that the climate should be very various. It may be divided into four classes, or districts :

1st. The tract of land from the 60° to the 78° of north latitude is the coldest. It comprehends the governments of Irkutsk, Tobolsk, Vologda, the whole of Archangel, Olonez, Siberia, Perm, Viburg, Novogorod, and St. Petersburg. On the 7th of December, 1786, the mercury in the thermometer of Reamur, which had fallen to 60 degrees, froze to such a degree in Ostrog-Veliki, that it was difficult to break the frozen mass by blows of a hammer.

2dly. The second district, between the 50° and 60° of north latitude, is much more temperate, but is still very cold. This important part of the empire includes the following provinces : Livonia, Esthonia, Polozk, Mohilev, Smolensko, Pleskov, Tver, Kostroma, Kolyvan, Ufa, Moscow, Volodimer, Kabanga, Tula, Rasan, Voronesch, Tambow, Pensa, Simbiersk, Kursk, Orel, Tchernigove, and a part of Kiow and Charkov.

3dly. The third division, which lies between the 45th and 50th degree of latitude, is sufficiently warm for the cultivation of vines, and the mulberry for silk-worms. It contains the following governments : Catharinoslaw, the greater part of the province of Caucasus, Astracan, Casan, a part of Charkov, of Kiow, Saratov, and even, of Colivan and Irkutsk.

4thly. The climate of the Crimea is extremely agreeable. During nine months of the year, the inhabitants enjoy the purest atmosphere, and a moderate degree of warmth. Nature resumes scarcely three months to renew her astonishing fertility. Spring begins here in the month of February, and the greatest heat is between the middle of May and the end of August ; the natural warmth of this season is increased by a sultry wind, which blows from ten o'clock in the morning sometimes till five o'clock in the evening. A mild rain, which is often preceded by a thunder storm, cools and purifies the air. The months of September and October are the most agreeable in the Crimea. The rainy season begins in the month of November, and a moderate cold prevails in December and January. Frost is of rare occurrence, and never lasts longer than three or four days. Thus the Crimea forms the fourth division of the climate of Russia. There are, however, some governments and provinces in Russia which partake of two ; others of three ; and some, for instance, that of Irkutsk, of all these four divisions. From this variety of climate it naturally follows, that Russia possesses, or at least is capable

of possessing all those vegetable productions which nature gives separately and with a sparing hand to other states.

The following are the most remarkable mountains of Russia :

1. The Northern Mountains stretch out northward of the 60° of north latitude from the shores of the Baltic to those of the White Sea, in a continued chain. The highest range of them extends from the side of Sweden along the northern shore of the Baltic towards the lakes Ladoga and Onega. The height is in most places inconsiderable, and the Neva is the only river of importance which has its source in them.

2. The mountains of Alaunski are in the centre of Russia, between Moscow, Smolensko, and Tula. The Dnieper, the Don, and the Volga, rise from them on one side, and the western Dwina, the Lovat, and several smaller rivers, flow from them on the other.

3. The mountains of the Crimea, or the Taurian Mountains, seem to be a continuation of the Caucasus. They extend as far as Salgyr and Bulganak, and one branch of them runs in the direction of Caffa, and continues in a westerly direction as far as the mouth of the Alma. The mountain which is called Tschetirday, and which divides the Crimea into two parts, is the highest of them.

4. Mount Caucasus rises majestically to the view in three ranges, or terraces. The first of these is not of a considerable elevation ; the second is thickly planted with various trees, and is never covered with snow ; the third is a regularly continued chain, on which the Russian government has undertaken to make a road into Georgia, which will soon be completed. The Terek flows with astonishing rapidity at the foot of this range of mountains. The whole range is four hundred English miles in length, and its summit is perpetually covered with snow. The tree known by the name of *Rai derera* grows here to a surprising height. There is also another tree here which, in whatever direction it is cut, presents alternate streaks of red and green to the view ; but its wood is so brittle, that it cannot be applied to any other use than that of fuel. The rivers Terek, Kuban, Kumma, and several other streams of less importance, rise in the Caucasus.

5. The Ural, called by the ancients the Hyperborean, or Ryphean Mountains, form the natural boundary between Europe and the north of Asia. Their greatest length, from north to south, is 2,400 miles ; they contain rich mines of gold, copper, and iron. The rivers Sosva, Tobol, Ural, Belaya, Kamma, Pischora, and a number of smaller rivers, have their sources nearly in the summits of these mountains.

6. The mountains of Altai occupy the whole tract of land between the Irtisch and the Yenissey, and constitute the boundaries between Siberia and China as far as the river Amur. They are the highest mountains in Asia; and in the middle of the extensive chain, Boghda-Oola, which is celebrated amongst the surrounding nations, raises its lofty head.

The sides of the Altai are but thinly scattered with wood; but rivers gush out from them in all directions. The following are the principal: The Irtisch, the Buchtorina, the Ulba, and Uda; the Oby, the Aky, the Tscharysch, the Tschulym, the Katunaya, the Tom, the Yus, and the Abakan.

7. The Sayani mountains are those at the foot of which the Yenissey and the Selenga run. Their summits are perfectly bare, except in some few spots where they are thinly covered with trees. The principal rivers which rise from them are the Yenissey, the Tuba, Mana, Kan, Lyrussa, Oka, Uda, Irkut, &c. &c.

8. The mountains of Baikal lie in the same direction as the lake of that name. Their summits are in some places bare; but, in general, they are covered with tufted groves. The Selenga, the Angara, the Lena, the Vilui, and the Tungura, flow from them. The lake Baikal contains several rocky islands which have a very picturesque appearance.

9. The mountains of Nertschinski traverse that tract of land which lies between the Selenga and the Argun; and are chiefly composed of granite. They contain productive mines in some parts, and their sides are covered with various kinds of forest trees. The Argun, the Amur, the Ingoda, the Karenga, the Niusa, the Vitim, &c. have their sources in these mountains.

10. In the mountains of Ochotsk, the rivers Anadyr, Amga, Aldan, Mayz, Kolima, and several smaller streams rise. These mountains, which are but little known, stretch out very far northward, and run eastward along the gulf of Udenski; they are called in Russian, "Stanowoi Krebeth."

11. The mountains of Kamschatka. This peninsula consists entirely of an uninterrupted chain of mountains, which encloses, as it were, the gulfs of Penschinsk and Anardiski, and continues its course through the Kurile and Aleutian Islands, towards North America; thus it may be said, that this chain of mountains in some degree connects Russia with the New World.

Although Russia contains such a number of mountains, which branch out in various directions to a considerable length, by far the greater part of the country is flat. The dry and elevated, uninhabited plains are called *Stepps*, or plains. The principal of these are as follows:

1. The plain of Petchora, which lies between the White Sea, and the Frozen Ocean, and between the Dwina and the Petchora.

2. The plain of the Dnieper, which comprises the whole tract of country between the Dnieper and the Bog. This immense and almost uninhabited plain, stretches out on the other side of the Donez as far as the Black Sea.

3. The plain between the Don and the Volga. There is here a deficiency of water and wood.

4. That between the Volga and the Ural is extremely sandy, but contains some lakes, which furnish a considerable quantity of salt.

5. The plain of the Irtisch is one of the most extensive in Russia; it is tolerably well inhabited, and is admirably well calculated for tillage and pasture.

6. That between the Oby and the Yenissey extends as far as the Frozen Ocean.

7. That between the Yenissey and the Lena.

8. That which lies between the Lena and the Indigirka. The two last steppes, also, extend as far as the Frozen Ocean.

No country possesses such abundance of forests as Russia; there are some of them, however, in which no human being has ever penetrated, and others which are too far removed from any navigable river to be turned to any considerable account. Siberia, in particular, possesses forests which are almost of immeasurable extent. Those between St. Petersburg and Moscow, and between Vladimir and Arsamias, are very extensive. But if there be no navigable river, populous cities, or mines in the neighbourhood of those forests, they are of comparatively little value. Considerable numbers of trees rot away, others are blown down by the wind, and thus destroy all the young trees in the neighbourhood of the spot on which they stood. Immense numbers of trees are also destroyed by having the bark stripped off them by the peasants to make shoes, which are called *lapti* in the Russian language. The custom of laying whole trees on the roads instead of pavement, causes also a considerable destruction of the forests; more particularly, as such roads are constantly in want of repair. It has been calculated that 2,100,000 trees, supposing each tree to be nine inches in diameter, are necessary to make a road of 150 verst in length, and forty-six feet in breadth. However, notwithstanding these united causes of the consumption of wood, Russia has still a much greater abundance of forest than any country in Europe. Oak, birch, fir, and willow, grow in different parts of it to an extraordinary perfection. The whole of the

Ukraine, the Crimea, Charkov, and Archangel, are remarkable for the excellence of their pastures; the grass rises to an extraordinary height, and the cattle are large and strong.

There are also few countries in Europe which are so well watered as Russia. It is intersected in every direction by navigable rivers, which might still be rendered considerably more advantageous to the commercial interests of the country, if they were connected with each other by canals, which, in many parts, would not be attended with much difficulty. I shall enumerate the principal rivers of Russia.

1. The Dwina, which rises near Toropez, and separates the governments of Livonia and Courland from Lithuania and Polotzk. It empties itself into the Baltic, and has fourteen falls, which, however, are neither steep nor impetuous; it receives several small rivers in its course, but is not deep enough, even under the walls of Riga, for vessels of more than 200 tons burthen.

2. The Neva, which issues from the lake Ladoga, runs through the city of Petersburg, spreads out into several branches, and loses itself in the gulf of Finland, at Cronstadt. Its water is pure and healthy for those who are accustomed to it; but it frequently has a purgative, and sometimes the contrary effect on strangers. Its course is about sixty versts, during which it receives the Ischora, the Ohta, and the Tosna.

3. The Narova, which has a magnificent fall a few versts from the city of Narva.

4. The Kymen, which separates Russian from Swedish Finland. These four rivers empty themselves into the Baltic.

5. The Kuban, which is the Hypanis of the ancients; it rises on Mount Caucasus, and forms several islands with the Tumesek, particularly the beautiful island Taman. Its course is not interrupted by rocks or waterfalls, but it is not deep enough for ships of considerable burthen.

6. The Dnieper or Boristhenes of the Greeks. This river empties itself into the Black Sea. It rises about 150 versts from Smolensko, near the spot where the Dwina and the Volga have their sources; and pursues its course to the length of 450 versts through the most beautiful and fertile part of the Russian empire. It has thirteen falls of different heights, almost all of which retain the Greek names, which they bore at the time of the Constantines. It abounds in fish, and in the neighbourhood of Cremeyschnck, its banks are covered with sedge and reeds, in which immense quantities of water-birds, particularly bitterns build their nests. It receives the Desna, the Sosch, and several smaller rivers in its course. Its water is not healthy.

7. The Bug, which separates the Russian and Turkish empires, and receives the Sinucha in its course. These two rivers form a triangle, two sides of which constituted the frontier of the two above mentioned empires, and on the third was the kingdom of Poland. There is a small city built on each side of the triangle.

8. The Don, or celebrated Tanais of the ancients, which runs from North to South, unites itself with the Sosna, and after having run through a space of more than 1100 versts, strikes out into three branches, which empty themselves into the sea of Azov at Tscherkask, the principal place of the Cossacks of the Don. It is too shallow for barks of considerable burthen. Its waters are muddy and unhealthy, and scarcely drinkable when the wind is high; however, it is so abundant in fish, that in the year 1789, I bought a waggon load of fish for the soldiers, for about three shillings. Its Sturgeons and the fish called *Sevruga*, are celebrated for their size and the delicacy of their flavour. The Don runs through a fertile tract of country, and its banks, which are covered with woods of oak, pine, and fir, present a most beautiful appearance. There is not more than 140 versts distance between the Don and the Volga, but it would be an easy matter to connect these two rivers by a canal, if the Lanka which empties itself into the Don, and the Kamishenka which falls into the Volga, were made navigable; and in this case there would be an uninterrupted communication between the Black Sea, the Caspian Sea and the Baltic. This was a favourite project of Peter the Great; but was never carried into execution; and since that period the Sovereigns of Russia have sacrificed the most effectual mode of promoting the national prosperity, to the pursuit of brilliant but unprofitable schemes of ambition.

9. The rivers of the *Crimea*. These are not of any considerable importance. The principal of them are the great and little Carassu, the Salgir, the Alma, the Catsha and the Cabarta. These last mentioned rivers all empty themselves into the Black Sea; but those which take their rise on Mount Caucasus and the Ural Mountains, flow into the Caspian Sea. The following are the names of these;

10. The Terek, which is one of the most rapid streams in Russia, but contains but little fish.

11. The Volga. This is the most considerable river, and the most abundant in fish of any in Europe. Its course extends upwards of four thousand versts. Several lakes and springs unite themselves in the government of Tver to form its source, and in its course it receives upwards of a hundred rivers, of

which thirty-three are considerable; it empties itself into the Caspian Sea at Astrachan, by sixty branches, which form a considerable number of islands. Upwards of a million of boatmen and fishermen find occupation and subsistence on it. They are ornamented with almost continued groves, and produce a great variety of vegetables, particularly asparagus of a superior quality. It is navigable up to a hundred and thirty versts from its source, and is consequently of the greatest importance in a commercial point of view. The Russians have the greatest veneration for this river; and all the poets who have seen or inhabited its banks, have lavished vast praises on it. The Russian peasants have a song which describes its manifold good qualities; the first verse of which is as follows:

Och ti matquschka Rëka
 Rëka Volga schiraka
 Da och-o-o och ti mene,
 Rëka Volga schiraka.

12. The Kamma. Before this river unites itself with the Volga, it traverses an extent of country of 1200 versts, and forms the communication between the southern provinces and the northern, which lie at the base of the Ural.

13. The Ural was formerly called Yaik in Russian. It empties itself into the Caspian Sea near Guriffé. A considerable number of loadstones are found in the neighbourhood of its banks. Its course is calculated at 3000 versts. It separates the territories of the Kirgises and Baschkirs.

14. The banks of the Omka are inhabited wholly by the Kirgises.

15. The Belaya is remarkable on account of the copper and lead mines, which are in the neighbourhood of its banks.

16. The Bir is remarkable for its waterfalls: there are a number of ruins of temples, baths, and antique burial places on its banks.

The Northern Ocean receives the rivers which flow from Siberia and from the Ural mountains. The principal of these are:

17. The Onega which empties itself into the White Sea.

18. The Northern Dwina.

19. The Oby, which traverses an extent of country of three hundred versts. It has received the epithet tranquil, on account of the slowness of its current. It is navigable nearly to its source, and forms a number of islands at the spot where it empties itself into a gulf of the Frozen Ocean.

20. The Yenissey, which the Tatars call The Great River. In autumn it is five hundred and sixty, and in spring above eight

hundred fathoms wide. After it has watered a tract of country of 2500 versts in length, it flows so gently into the Frozen Ocean, that its current is scarcely perceptible.

21. The Irtysh, which is extremely sinuous, and after a course of 2000 versts it unites itself with the Oby. It receives several rivers in its course, particularly the Tobol and the Konda.

22. The Lena, which is one of the most considerable rivers in Eastern Siberia. It divides itself into five branches, of which three run in an eastern, and two in a western direction to the Frozen Ocean. The length of its course, which is 5300 versts, exceeds that of every other river in Europe. It rises in mountains near the lake Baikal.

23. The Amur is called the Dragon River by the Chinese, and by the Tartars of the horde of Manschu, The Black Stream. It is navigable in almost every part, and flows into the Sea of Okhotsk.

The remaining rivers, such as the Angara, which unites itself with the Yenissey, the Kamtschatka, the Andayr, the Pingina, the Indigirka, &c. do not deserve a particular description.

PART. II.

REMARKS ON SEVERAL PROVINCES AND CITIES OF RUSSIA, PARTICULARLY MOLDAVIA, Bessarabia, Wallachia, AND THE CRIMEA.

AS soon as the traveller has quitted the marshy and heathy neighbourhood of Petersburg, he arrives on the frontiers of the government of Novogorod; and after having passed the Volchow by means of a bridge, half wood and half stone, he enters the city of Novogorod, which is extremely deserted and fallen to decay. The cathedral church was built in the year 1051, by the grand duke Jaroslaw, in honour of St. Sophia. The doors, which are of bronze, are ornamented with bas-reliefs. Joinardes speaks of this city as being a place of considerable importance. In fact, it belonged to the Hanseatic league in the 13th century, and had an aristocratic form of government, at the head of which was the celebrated Gostomisl, whose name is familiar to all Russians, and whose exploits have been sung by Sumarokov, one of the greatest poetical geniuses of Russia.

Boris Gudenov, the tzar of Russia, was constantly at variance with the city; but Lubeck, as an ally, sent an ambassador to the court of the tzar and re-established peace. The Volchov, into which the Russians threw their idols, on embracing the Christian faith, is celebrated in the songs of the Russians, and in the popular tales of the Slavonians. Some ancient chronicles maintain, that ships of burthen formerly came up the river as far as the city, and different treaties, which have been concluded with the Swedes, prove the truth of this assertion, which appears almost incredible at present. As the Volchov is extremely rapid, it is seldom frozen over. It has several waterfalls, the principal of which is called the Head of St. John; it abounds in a fish which is called sig, (*Salmo lazareus*) a species of salmon. The nobility of Novogorod is the most ancient in the Russian empire, and is extremely proud of this superiority. The Russian language is here spoken in its greatest purity. The citadel was taken by the Swedish general Pontus de la Gardie, who devastated the surrounding country to such a degree, that his cruelty is become proverbial. Not far from the city are the ruins of an old castle, which is said to have been the residence of Rurick, whom Rostomisl invited to assist him against his enemies, but who afterwards seized upon the country for himself. The castle is said to have been called Old Ladoga, a name which is derived from the Slavonian word Lader, signifying a place of repose. There are subterraneous passages in the neighbourhood of it, which are said to be continued under the bed of the Volchov. The oldest Russian coins were coined in Novogorod. I have seen silver pieces in a museum, which had been coined in Novogorod, in the tenth century, and represented on one side a man on horseback. In the year 1781 several manuscripts were found here in a tolerably perfect state; but although they were communicated to several academies, they have never been explained; they were written in the same characters as an inscription on a clock in the convent of St. Saba, at Svenigorod, near Moscow.

The best meadow land in Russia is the neighbourhood of Novogorod. The hay which they produce, called Broniz hay, is in great request at Petersburg, and is twice as dear as that of any other province. There are a number of excellent studs here, which belong to the Emperor. In general the inhabitants of Novogorod have the reputation of being very litigious, and the best lawyers in Petersburg and Moscow are the natives of this place. The government or district of Novogorod is bounded on one side by a chain of mountains, the highest of which receives its name from the village of Valday, which is celebrated

for the beauty of its women. During the reign of the Empress Elizabeth, a coal mine was discovered here; but as it has not since been worked, it is probable that it was not very productive.

From the government of Novogorod the road passes through the government of Pleskov to

WHITE RUSSIA.

This province, which but a few years ago came under the domination of the Russian Emperors, was formerly incorporated with the empire, particularly the two provinces Polotzk and Mstislav; the former of which was the dowry which Volodimir the holy received with Rognede, the daughter of Rogewold duke of Lithuania. This extremely ill peopled province contained, according to a survey made in 1788, no more than 600,000 inhabitants of the male sex.

The soil is so sandy and barren, that it does not furnish subsistence for black cattle. The poverty of the peasants is rendered still more insupportable by the injudicious oppression of the landlords, who avail themselves of their feudal prerogatives, with unfeeling severity. A considerable part of the province is covered with forests of fir trees.

The late field marshal count Czernicheff, who was governor of this province, made roads through it in different directions, which, in point of beauty, excel those of every other country in Europe. In the middle is a broad carriage way, planted on both sides with alders, birch trees, &c. On each side of the main road there are elevated path ways, which are also planted with trees. This work, which is worthy of the ancient Romans, is carried on, notwithstanding the various obstacles which nature opposes to its progress. A species of fern, (*Filix Mas*, in Russian *Paprotnyk*) and of sorrel (*Rumex acetosella*, in Russian *Kislitza*) grow here. The pine trees are frequently hung with bee-hives, but the honey has not a good colour, on account of the bees feeding on the blossoms of Turkish wheat. The appearance of the peasants indicates debility and disease. Their food frequently consists of the bark of the oak, mixed with a kind of cake made of sorrel. The cause of this excessive misery of the peasants appears to me to be as follows: When this province belonged to Poland, the men of landed property farmed out their extensive estates to a description of persons called middle men, who oppressed and impoverished the peasants, and generally were in a few years able to purchase the estate which they had farmed.

The inhabitants of White Russia speak a dialect, which is composed of the Russian and Polish languages. Their accent resembles that of the Cossacks of the Don. They wear a kind

of felt hat or bonnet, which resembles an inverted pot. Their shoes are made of the bark of the birch tree, and are called "*lapti*" in the Russian language; those who, as being of noble birth, are distinguished by the title *schluchtiz*, have the right to wear a black girdle, and a sword. Persons of this description generally cultivate their own little field, or are hired by the opulent farmers to tend their flocks; they are flogged and insulted like other peasants, but they enjoy the enviable privilege of being laid on a carpet to receive their flogging, instead of being laid on the naked earth like vulgar criminals. It is singular that the peasants in this country have almost all long necks, and their heads nod as if they were palsied. The *plica polonica*, called in the language of the country *Kaltun*, is very general, and attacks not only the human species, but horses, dogs and wolves. The hair on the head and on different parts of the body become filled with a glutinous matter, and entangled to such a degree, that it is impossible to comb it. If the blood be saturated with the diseased matter, it oozes out into the nails as well as the hair, and causes them to become black and rugged. If the hair be cut off during the prevalence of the disease, the patient is affected with head ache, madness, blindness, or even death, according to the violence of the disease. Physicians have of late began to treat this disease with mercury, but from the example of several peasants, who have it not in their power to employ a physician, I am led to think that it is better to leave it to its regular course, for as soon as the blood becomes restored to its former purity, the diseased hair falls off, and is succeeded by hair, which is as clean and as healthy as if the disease had never existed. Several persons have recourse to the disgusting and ridiculous remedy of steeping the matted hair of an old plica, in brandy for several days, and then drinking the liquor, others keep their heads shaved, but by doing so they only render the disease more virulent. The venereal disease is not treated with more judgment, and causes greater ravages. On entering a village, I have seen several infected persons, buried up to the necks in dunghills on the side of the road, where they are frequently left in the greatest agony for ten days or a fortnight, unless they have the good fortune to die in the interim. It is evident from the physiognomy, dress, and accent of the inhabitants of the village of Uschatky near Tschernügow, that colonies of Finlanders have emigrated to this country. In the neighbourhood of Mstislaw and Propoisk, the inhabitants have a singular dialect, which seems to be composed of the Russian, Polish, German, Latin, and Moldavian languages. The following is a specimen of it:—"Cljich wchas a tu sergei schmack-

schunis :”—Come into the house, or you will be wet.—“In me liba sem corde !”—You love me in your heart.

This province is admirably well situated for commerce. Two considerable rivers, the Dwina and the Dnieper pass through it, and carry its productions to the Baltic and the Black Sea : but even this very trade costs annually the lives of a great number of persons, who, unable to bear the rigour of the climate, die of different diseases. The woods abound with flying squirrels, (“*Sciurus volans*,” in Russian “*Letiaga* ;” and with a kind of bluish crow, “*Coracias garrula*,” called in the language of the country “*Sizovorotka*.” The flying squirrel is formed like the common species, but is a good deal larger. Its skin is so loose that it forms a kind of bag between its fore and hind legs, like that of a bat : this skin, when it is spread out, serves the animal instead of wings. When it wishes to fly, it climbs up to the top of a tree, and perches on the thinnest branch, on which it swings backwards and forwards for some time : as soon as it perceives that the motion is strong enough to give it the necessary impulsion, it springs to a surprising distance, and supports itself in the air by means of its outspread skin ; however, the spot on which it alights is always less elevated than that from which it has sprung. Its hair is of a whitish grey colour in summer, at which season the common squirrel is usually brown.

The Jews seem to have found a second Palestine in White Russia ; cities and villages are often exclusively inhabited by them ; and the filthiness which is peculiar to them, may here be seen in its most disgusting extreme. The Jews here are merchants, innkeepers, and agents to the men of landed estates.

Mohilew, the residence of the governor general, and the capital of the province, is situated on the Dnieper, and is surrounded by a mud wall of no great strength. Its public buildings are elegant and splendid ; those of the inhabitants are built partly of wood and partly of stone. There is a convent for the Jesuits, one for the Benedictines, and a Greek convent. The Greek church of St. Joseph is very magnificent, and was so called in honor of Joseph the Second, emperor of Germany, who passed through here in 1780. The head of the Greek church in this province, and the principal of the catholic faith in the whole of the Russian empire, have palaces here. Near the city there is a high steep hill, which Charles the XIIth. ran up, followed by a few of his guards, to attack a Russian fortification ; in which affair he was slightly wounded.

White Russia possesses a considerable variety of vegetables, which are made use of in medicine : there is a great abundance of the cochlearia, and the serratula, called in Russian *ser-*
CAMPENHAUSEN.]
C

pischia; the peasants cure their children of the cramp by giving them *pansy*, mixed with an infusion of moss, which has been stripped off oak trees. As soon as the traveller has quitted this province, and passed the river Dessna at Tschernigov, he sees no more of those extensive tracts of country, which are covered with wild mustard and "*Gentiana centaurium*," called in the language of the country "*zindelica*." This last vegetable is made use of in Dubrowna, in the breweries, to give a peculiar taste to a kind of strong beer resembling porter. With the frontiers of this province, the tree called in Russian *tshcheriomucha*, and in the language of the country *kalakolnshika*, also disappears. It resembles the cherry tree, and has a white fragrant blossom: I have not seen it in flower, but I believe that it is the *prunus padus*. The peasants are extremely fond of the succulent roots of the *equisetum*.

The peasants of White Russia are divided into three classes, and the country is portioned out, into *uwalocks* instead of *desætines*, as is the case in the other parts of Russia: a *desætine* contains 486 feet in length, and 180 in breadth; and a *uwalock* contains twenty square *desætines*. The peasants of the first class are called *Semiani*, from the word *Semla*, which means earth: they are not employed in the labours of the field, as their name would lead to suppose, but are made use of as overseers, messengers, &c. &c. They pay the landlord to whom they belong fourteen rubles yearly for every male in their family; they pretend to be noblemen, and to have been forced, by their poverty, or by the dishonesty of the land-owners, to inscribe themselves in the class of peasants: they call themselves *Schlachtiz*; cannot be forced to work for the landlord: they wear white dresses, black caps and belts; never go without a sabre, and beg their bread when out of employment. Some of them possess the fourth part of a *uwalock*, which they cultivate with their relations, who always live with them.

The second class is called *Gluchokunischnie*: each peasant of this class receives from his owner the fourth part of a *uwalock*, for which he is obliged to pay five rubles yearly. If he have several sons, he is obliged to take as many quarter *uwalocks* as he has sons, and to pay five rubles yearly for each of them; so that it may be calculated, that each family pays twenty rubles yearly on an average: they become hereditary proprietors of the portion which is assigned them; but they can neither sell nor leave it: they are *gleba adscripti*.

The third class is called *Prigoinoi*: each person of this class, who is able to work, is obliged to labour for his master four days in the week. The males pay six rubles yearly. They are slaves in the fullest sense of the word, and may be sold separately,

or as the owner thinks proper: their situation is extremely wretched.

If any part of the estate remain undisposed of, it is farmed out to Jews; many of whom have purchased estates here. In the towns, they pay a certain sum for every fathom of land which they possess, exclusive of the capitation-tax; and besides this landtax, and the ordinary capitation-tax, every Jew is obliged to pay a ruble and twenty-five copecks to the crown for every male in his family. It is impossible for him to procure an exemption from this tax, even if he possessed such large landed estates as the Polish counsellor of state Levi Aaron Hamsche.

The principal towns in this district are Polotzk, Witepsk, Babinovitsch and Dubrovna, in all of which Prince Potemkin established manufactories: Orscha, where the princess Sophia, sister of Peter the First, founded a convent; Seklov, one of the richest towns in the province, in which general Soritsch established a military school; but which, since his death, has been transferred to another place. Tchetschersk, a small town, with 6000 peasants belonging to it; and lastly, Homel, which Catharine the Second conferred on Field Marshal Romanzov, together with 12,000 peasants, as a reward for his services.

The river Sosch runs near Homel; and although the bed of the river is by no means wide in summer, it swells considerably after the snow has melted, and was six versts from one bank to the other when I passed it in 1788. After having travelled a distance of thirty-five versts, I arrived at

LITTLE RUSSIA, OR THE UKRAINE.

This beautiful country, on which nature pours forth her blessings with a liberal hand, was as extensive as Old Russia, before Siberia, Astracan, and the Asiatic provinces were united with it. As it was formerly the frontier of Russia, it received the name of Ukraine from the Russian word Ukraiya, which means frontier. When Russia was divided into governments, several of the districts of the Ukraine, such as Pultava, Goltva, &c. &c. were united with the government of Catharineburg. Kiev, celebrated for the number of its churches, convents, chapels, and catacombs, and the hospitality of the inhabitants, is the capital of the province, and the seat of government, and of the courts of justice.

Kiev is an extensive city, but contains nothing worthy of attention but its catacombs.

The city of Dobranka is inhabited by the people called Roscolnicks, who became so turbulent in the year 1790, because one of their churches was taken possession of for the Russians of

the established religion, that it was thought necessary to reduce them to obedience by military force. I shall speak more at large of this sect in another place.

Tschernigov is a large but decayed city, which is the seat of a governor, and of an archbishop (in Russian *Arcliré*). It contains a number of churches, one of which is in the form of a rotunda, and was built by the grandduke Jaroslav Volodimeritch. In another of them are deposited the remains of the two brothers and saints Boris and Chleb, who were assassinated by Swietopolk. The Desna flows in the neighbourhood of the city and inundates the adjacent country every spring to the extent of ten or twelve wersts.

Neschin is a handsome populous town, and has an extensive trade, which is in the hands of the Greeks and Armenians, who are established there. The empress Anna Ivanovna gave them numerous privileges; and their commerce consists chiefly in the following articles: Wines, preserved fruits, Greek soap, leather, and silk manufactured articles, which they purchase in Greece in Asia; and export to the other provinces, perfumeries, which are not inferior to those of Montpellier, liqueurs, &c. &c. There are two fairs held here annually, which are much frequented. The city is surrounded by marshes, which abound in snipes and different kinds of water-fowl.

Lubny is remarkable on account of the siege which it sustained against Charles XII. The air of Lubny and Chorol is so healthy, that consumptive persons travel thither and soon recover their health. It is here that the plains or steppes begin, which are inhabited by the *Marmota citellus*. This little animal is a kind of field-mouse, but is speckled with black and yellow, or grey and white. It lives in perpendicular holes which it digs in the earth, and which it seldom leaves but at night, when it makes a disagreeable howling noise. It has two long front teeth, by means of which it is able to defend itself against a cat. A large species of owl, called in the language of the Ukraine *Pugatsch*, destroys considerable numbers of them. They are caught in the following manner; water is poured into their holes, and as soon as they are wet, they spring out; but as they cannot run fast, they are easily killed. The skins of several hundreds of them are required to make a cloak, as only about two finger's breadth of the back can be made use of. They are generally used for the facings of great coats and saddles.

Graditscheck is the last city of the Ukraine; for at a short distance on the other side of it the government of Catherineburg commences. However, it must be recollected, that these remarks were written at the time that Russia was divided into governments, since that period many changes have taken place.

A number of old Roman coins have been found in the neighbourhood of Graditschck. I have seen some of Augustus, Vespasian, Trajan, Antoninus Pius, and a considerable number of Marcus Aurelius and Maximinus.

Having once passed Tschernigow, the traveller sees no more shoes made of the bark of trees nor wooden houses; as on the opposite side of the Dessna, the peasants here are all more opulent.

The houses in this mild climate are built of branches of trees interwoven with each other, then plastered over with mortar and whitewashed; the rooms are generally wainscoted, and the roofs are thatched.

The inhabitants of the Ukraine, like those of all southern countries, are indolent and dirty, except in their houses, which are extremely neat. They work no more than is sufficient to enable them to procure the bare necessities of life. They are not quite so much addicted to drunkenness as the northern Russians, but their liquors are more palatable and equally strong. They are extremely licentious, and suffer very much from the venereal disease. They seem to have a natural genius for poetry, and the picturesque beauties which surround them, love and brandy, are usually the subjects of their poems. Their ploughs, which go on wheels and have a double share, are drawn by four, six, and sometimes eight oxen, and as the soil is extremely heavy, it is as much as they can do to turn up the surface of it. They seldom harrow the land, but generally sow it immediately after it has been ploughed. They cut all kinds of corn with a scythe, to which a kind of rake is fastened; and as they are passionately fond of music, they generally have one or two musicians to play for them whilst they are at work. Their dances are gay and animated; and that called the Kamarinskaya is so delicately voluptuous that it is extremely difficult to give it the necessary expression, and at the same time to avoid violating decorum and modesty.

The language of the inhabitants of the Ukraine generally terminates in a vowel. Their dress, particularly that of the rich, is a mixture of the Polish and Tartar costumes. The nobles are extremely proud, and reckon amongst the first families only those which have had a Hetman, a general, or a chief justice. To these belong the Kotschubays, the Kuliabakas, the Besborodkos, the Skurapatzkys, &c. &c. These distinguished families are descended from the Petschenegian Tartars. Notwithstanding their pride, they have not the folly to disdain commerce, for in the Ukraine every man is a merchant or a farmer.

Fruits of all kinds grow to great perfection here, particularly that kind, whose name I only know in Russian Deron. This fruit is preserved in a particular manner, and is much liked throughout

all Russia. The farmers distil liquors from the fruits which their gardens or fields produce, and which are called by the generic name Nalivky; to this name is added that of the fruit from which they are extracted, for instance, Rasp-berry Malinowka; Cherry Vischnovka; Plums, Sliwenka; &c. &c. It is a singular contrast that all the horned cattle in the Ukraine are extremely large, and that the horses are always small, although they feed on the same pastures. The soil is black, and so rich that it never requires to be dunged. The only mode which is ever adopted to enrich it is to burn the grass or stubble. The millet which is grown here is of a peculiar large kind, and gives excellent groats. It is always sown in fresh land, and particularly in fields where pines have stood, and been burned down for this purpose. Amongst the numerous varieties of birds with which the woods and fields here are enlivened, I have observed a singular kind of lark, which has a tuft of feathers on its head, which it raises erect when it sings. Its song is more pleasing than that of the common lark, but it does not soar so high. In the woods there are stags, hares, and foxes, but few wolves, and still fewer bears. The rivers abound in every kind of fish; particularly that which is called in Russian Vyresnb. This fish is unknown in every country but the Ukraine and a part of White Russia. If it be taken out of the river and put into a pond, it dies instantly.

A spiral cartilaginous substance of the shape of a plumb stone is found in its head, which, when laid for some time in oil, becomes transparent and resembles amber, and is purchased by the Jewesses to make necklaces.

SHORT ACCOUNT OF THE ROSCOLNICKS.

The Roscolnicks, or as they also call themselves Starivertzy, which means Ancient Believers, are schismatics of the Greek Church, and are divided into several sects. As I passed some time in the country which is principally inhabited by them, that is between Starodub and Elizabethgrad, I have taken pains to obtain authentic information relative to them, and shall communicate such details as I have been able to collect from my enquiries, and from the perusal of a manuscript which was written by the Archimandrite Andreas Ivanov, in Ochta, entitled, an Account of the different Sects in the Russian Empire. The origin of the Roscolnicks is as follows: Some priests who were stripped of their gowns at different periods, sought to take revenge on the government, by insinuating to the lower orders of the people that all printed copies of the Bible were corrupted, and that they alone were in possession of the genuine copy as communicated by God himself to the saints and prophets. Abakun, a priest, and two

deacons, Feodor and Lazarev were the heads of this new sect, which gave itself the name of Starivertzy or antient believers. They ordained priests, and baptized only by immersion in rivers. The fanaticism of the people was carried to such a pitch at that period in different parts of the country, that several thousand Russians quitted their homes, and established themselves in the woods of Olonez, and in the government of Nischini-Novogorod, in order to be able to worship God according to their own principles. Some of these proceeded towards Moscow, and baptized anew all their proselytes, of whom they made considerable numbers; these called themselves Perekrestschenzki, or Anabaptists; they had no priests or ministers, and did not marry at first, but had their women in common. A third division turned towards Poland, and settled near Voronesch, where one of their members, who had ordained himself priest, built a church which he dedicated to the Virgin Mary. This sect spread in Russia on the banks of the Onego, and called itself Popovtschnia, or The Priestly. This last sect branched out into five different divisions, which were all at variance with each other respecting different articles of faith; the first was the sect of Vetka, which was the most numerous of all; 2d, the Diaconovtschnia, which had deacons but no priests, formed itself in 1706; 3d, the Peremasauzy, or Makers of holy Oil, *Iterones mysteriam sacri olei*; 4th, the sect of the priest Stephanus, who crossed themselves in a particular manner; and 5th, those who had come from the village of Tschernobol, which belonged to the Starosty of Chotkevitz, these blessed their congregations with lights. All these sects had the greatest aversion for each other, and agreed only in one point, which was to vow an eternal hatred to the established church.

The sect of Vetka could not bear the idea that Peter the Great should unite in his person the dignities of head of the church and of the state; and on this account the greater part emigrated to Poland. The emperor exerted all his efforts to induce them to return, and at length succeeded; they established themselves in the neighbourhood of Starodub, and in a short time seventeen considerable villages were wholly inhabited by them. This is the principal seat of the sect to this day, although considerable numbers accepted of the advantageous offers which a person of the name of Chaletzky made them to emigrate to White Russia. They there took possession of an island in the river Sosch, between Tschetschersk and Homel, and called it Vetka; however this spot was soon too small for their increasing numbers. They spread out into the country, and built the four villages Kossez-kaya, Dubovoilug, Papsuyefka, and Mariina, whose united po-

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 pulation amounted to 15,000. The government of Poland allowed them the free exercise of their religion, and thus enriched the state with a number of industrious citizens. New colonies of this sect built ten villages in the neighbourhood of Homel, and with the conquest of White Russia they came again under the Russian scepter. The sect called Diaconovtschiny was founded by a deacon of the name of Alexauder in the year 1706. Animated by a desire to distinguish himself, he persuaded the ignorant that he had discovered egregious errors in the tenets of all the prevailing sects. He maintained that the benediction should be given to the people by a perpendicular, and not by an oblique movement of the hand, and such like absurdities. He succeeded in his wish; but after his death, and that of his disciple, his followers reunited themselves with the established church.

Another class of Roscolnicks established themselves between Tschermgov and Novogorod-Seversky, and are remarkable for their industry and their riches. They built eleven villages, which were emancipated by Peter the First, and since that period they belong neither to the crown nor to private persons. Catharine II. gave them the rights of citizens, and divided them into guilds; they are partly of the sect of Vetka, and partly of that of Peremasauzy; but their common interest has extinguished the animosity which characterizes those two sects.

The Popovtscheny maintain that he who reads the Gospel is not stedfast in faith. They sent a man of the name of Antonius as deputy to the archbishop of Yassy, to intreat him to send them a bishop; but he found some means of avoiding to comply with their request. In the year 1731 they united themselves with the sect of the Diaconi, and repeated their former entreaty to have a person of the Vlas (Blasius) created bishop. The archbishop consulted the patriarch of Constantinople, who offered to comply with their request, on condition they would admit twelve articles which he should propose to them; but as they peremptorily refused to agree to this proposal, such of them as had established themselves in Moldavia were banished. It would be too severe a satire on the human mind to enumerate these absurd articles, for the enforcement of which the state deprived itself of so many industrious citizens; and sooner than comply with which hundreds of individuals sacrificed for ever their country, and the establishments which had given them bread. A man of the name of Stephen Jacoblev, who in the year 1725 had stolen 240 rubler in the convent of Caselsk, for which he had been condemned to be flogged, began to make his appearance as the leader of a sect in the year 1733. After he had suffered his punishment he was sent to the convent of Solovezky,

from whence he made his escape, but being taken again he was condemned to imprisonment for life.

He availed himself of the eloquence with which he was endowed by nature, and of the good education which he had received, to work upon the minds of his fellow prisoners. His congregation was soon composed of persons of the first distinction, who were induced by the fame of his eloquence to enter the walls of a prison to listen to his discourses. The Synod, alarmed at his growing popularity, ordered him to be sent to Siberia; but some of his followers attacked the guard which escorted him, as they were passing through the forest of Varoshav, and rescued him. He was brought in triumph to Ivetka, where the inhabitants received him with joyful acclamations, and proclaimed him their bishop. He read masses, ordained deacons and priests, and was the first of the sect who introduced choirs into the service of the church. He was tyrannically severe towards the clergy; and as he never pardoned their most trifling errors, their hatred became boundless. At length hearing that Raphael, archbishop of Kiev had orders to apprehend him, they fell on him unexpectedly, tied him down, and delivered him into the hands of the archbishop. His death, which took place in 1735, rescued him from the disgrace and punishment which awaited him.

The illegal mode in which Jacoblev was created bishop, awakened the jealousy of government; and as repeated remonstrances were of no avail, the empress Anna gave orders to colonel Sytin to march against the revolvers at the head of some regiments of the line and Cossaks, and to bring them to obedience by force. Four thousand of them were taken prisoners and sent back to their different birth-places, and their wooden church was embarked in a large boat on the river Sosch; but a storm coming on, both the boat and the church were buried in the waves. The sectarians saw in this storm the hand of providence, and believed that God had taken their church to himself; and from that time, whenever they are asked of what religion they are, they answer that they belong to the church in the waters. With the aid of their brethren in Dobrianka, they built a splendid church in 1785, and a monastery for 200 monks, and a convent near it for 100 nuns. The monks had no refectory, but dined with the nuns, whom they called their sisters; and such of them as had no sisters were obliged to dine with the inhabitants of the town until a vacancy occurred. These monks became in a short time excessively rich by the donations which were made them, and by their earnings in the villages where there were no regular clergymen. This sect was so much attached to the house of Chalizky, that when the troops of prince Radzivil waged

war against it in the Polish manner, and made an incursion on his territory, they were attacked and defeated by the sectaries, notwithstanding the horror which all the Roscolnicks, without distinction, have for warfare and bloodshed.

In the year 1760, the empress Elizabeth published an edict, but without any success, in which she offered an amnesty to all the Roscolnicks living in Poland who should return to Russia. Catharine II. issued a proclamation in the year 1764, in which she invited them to return, and offered them their choice to inscribe themselves either as peasants or citizens; gave them the liberty of building villages for their own sect, and only required in return, that they should furnish their proportion of recruits to the army. A considerable number of them returned, and established themselves in the government of Kiev, particularly at Starodub, which village is almost entirely inhabited by them. Still, as many of them continued in Poland, and had the audacity to commit outrages on the frontiers, the empress sent an army against them in 1765, and upwards of 20,000 of them transported to the colonies in Siberia. They have built a splendid church in Starodub, and in the year 1779 they sent deputies to their brethren in Moscow, where a kind of council was held, which was wholly taken up with ridiculous disputes relative to the works of archbishop Saba and bishop Martinus of Antioch. It was intended also to establish general church-ceremonies for all the different sects, but the Peremasanzi rejected every proposal which was made, and continued faithful to their old customs.

The sect of the Diaconi has made the greatest number of proselytes, and is become extremely numerous in the government of Nischni-Novogorod. Peter the Great gave himself considerable pains to unite them with the Greek church. He raised to the archiepiscopal dignity a man of the name of Pytirim, who had been many years one of their monks. Pytirim assembled a council, to which he proposed 130 points, which they were to answer; but they presented him in their turn 240 points, and demanded a categorical answer to each of them. The archbishop sent circular letters to all their priests, monks, nuns, and elders in the diocese of Nischni-Novogorod, demanding them whether they had received his 130 disputed points, and whether the 240 which he had received contained their opinions. He then opened a council, with an eloquent discourse, beginning with the words of the evangelist, *Mandatum novum do vobis*; he explained to them the sign of the cross, and the word Alleluja, but all was in vain; a considerable number of these people emigrated from Russia and Poland; and established themselves in

Bessarabia and Moldavia. A man of the name of Ambrosius, who had escaped from the convent of New Jerusalem near Moscow, pretended that he had been created bishop by the archbishop of Siberia; but that having discovered the errors of the Russian church, he preferred being merely a priest amongst the true believers. He first repaired to Starodub, but not thinking himself to be in safety there, he retired with a considerable number of followers to Yassy, where he was acknowledged archbishop by the metropolitan.

All these sects of the Roscolnicks, of which there are about 72, differ from each other in some unimportant church ceremonies, but agree in the principal tenets of their religion. They prefer manuscript to printed books; each of them makes the sign of the cross in a particular manner; they all hate the paintings or other representations of Russian saints, particularly those which are represented naked in the Italian manner. They never curse, and abhor tobacco in all its forms. Their painters who are employed to paint their saints are obliged to make several weeks preparation for this holy occupation. There are immense numbers of these sectaries in Bessarabia, in Moldavia, and even in Constantinople, where they are not only tolerated but are allowed the public exercise of their religion by a firman of the Porte. I have seen an archbishop of theirs who was the stupidest and most unpolished monk that ever I had the misfortune to become acquainted with. In order to give the reader an idea how trifling the difference is between the Greek church and that of the Roscolnicks, I shall quote a part of their service, which has excited the greatest acrimony, and given rise to the most violent disputes between the two churches. It is the Easter hymn, Voskresnaya Pesu, or the Psalmostys Anastaseos of the Greeks. The following is the Russian with a literal translation:

Christos woskrese is moert-wich.	Christ arose from the dead.
Smert Smertjiov poprav.	And he ennobled death by death.
I souschim wo grobe gien daroval.	And he gave life to those lying in the grave.
The Roscolnicks sing	
Christos woskrese is moert-wich.	Christ arose from the dead.
Smertjion na Smert nastoupis.	And by death he rose superior to death.
I grobnikam gisu podaril.	And he gave life, to those lying in the grave.

In the year 1785, a Ukase, inviting the Roscolnicks to reunite themselves with the Russian church, was published with considerable success. Those who lived in the government of Catharineburg submitted to the conditions proposed, with few exceptions. There is a sect of Roscolnicks in this government, in which the women perform the religious functions of the clergy. All the Roscolnick sectaries in this government are under the inspection of the archbishop of Tauris, a man of considerable learning, as well as his coadjutor Moses, who is known in the literary world by his translations of Aulus Gellius, and of the ecclesiastical History of the Abbe Fleury. Russia contains at present about 300,000 Roscolnicks, who have several convents and an Anchimandrite in the city of Nicolayev on the Bug.

KREMENTSCHUK.

Krementschuk lies under the 53° of longitude and 49° of latitude. Its name is derived from the Tatar word "Krementschock," which means "much desert." It is situated on the left bank of the Dnieper, and is surrounded by the little river Kahamlyck. A fruit which the Russians call Tern, and which grows in abundance on the banks of this river is called here Kahamlyck. This town, which is at present the largest in the whole government, contains nothing remarkable, but does a good deal of transit-trade, as it is advantageously situated between White Russia and the Crimea. The merchants here are for the most part Armenians, Greeks, and Jews, and are very opulent. The principal articles of commerce are, different kinds of wooden ware manufactured in White Russia, pitch, tar, iron, and tow, which are sent to the Crimea, from whence Turkish stuffs, leather, Greek wines, and fruit are imported. There is a bridge here over the Dnieper, which, however is the only one in the government. The repeated inundations of this river and the city of Catharineburg, which has been lately built about 140 versts from here, are prejudicial to the the trade of Krementschuk. Exclusive of the abovementioned wares and productions, the shops are filled with dates, raisins, different kinds of tobacco, soap, and lastly a fish which is called Karakatizza. It is found in great abundance in the Ægean Sea, from whence it is conveyed to Krementschuk by water. Before it is boiled, it is beaten on a stone until it froths. It is served up with a kind of sweet sauce of a red colour, and is a very favourite dish of the Greeks. This is the first town of Russia in which the word Bazar is heard, which in Turkish means market. The mode of living also is different here from that which I had before observed. The inhabitants live almost entirely on flesh; it rarely

happens that they have fish or vegetables to be served on their tables. They have a kind of soup, however, which is made of groats and vegetables, of which they are very fond: this soup is rather sour, and is called borsch, from the name of the carrot which is boiled in it.

I here met with Moldavian wine, for the first time. It is extremely light, and, when it has age, resembles Mozelle wine. The wine which is grown near the city of Sudack, in the Crimea, resembles young Burgundy in flavour. The best vineyards in this country are those in the neighbourhood of Cherson; there are also various kinds of liqueurs made here, which in Russia are called Nalifky. The town of Krementschuck does not contain more than 1000 houses; the soil in the neighbourhood of it is sandy, and almost covered with *Hernaria glabra*. It is probable that the bed of the Dnieper, which has often changed place, was once nearer the town than it is at present. It contains several rocks of granite, which, in some places, rise above the surface of the water; and the most beautiful agates are found on its banks. It abounds in fish of all kinds, particularly sturgeon; but the fish which most abounds here, is one which resembles the sturgeon, but has a more pointed head. It is frequently seven feet long, and has but one fin, which is on the back: its bladder furnishes a kind of glue. I have given it the name of *Acipenser ruthenus naso acutissimo*. The banks of the Dnieper are in some places covered with the species of edible snail, called *Mytilus polymorphus*, and considerable numbers of small tortoises, called Tscherepach, and large but ill-flavoured craw-fish are found in it.

The sandy stepp, or plain, which surrounds Krementschuck, resembles that of the Volga, near Astracan. I exerted myself in vain to find the *Calligonum Polygonoides*, which a celebrated naturalist asserts to have been here.

This leafless shrub, which was so well known to the ancients, on account of the Nomades making the points of their lances from its roots, was no where to be found, notwithstanding my unwearied researches. They cultivate here considerable quantities of Indian pepper (*Capsicum annuum*), and sun-flowers, (*Helianthus annuus*), in Russian, "Podsolnischuck. The peasants extract an excellent kind of oil from the seeds of this latter plant. The gardens swarm with little green frogs (*Rana arborea*), and a kind of grey lizard; green lizards are very seldom to be seen here. Professor Saussure, of Geneva, asserts that he has found green lizards, boiled to a jelly, to be of considerable benefit in the venereal disease.

All kinds of poultry are here of an extraordinary size and

beauty; and peculiarly well-flavoured. The blue Caspian goose (*Anas cygnoides*), with black beak; and Persian ducks (*Anas boschas*), with a red ring round the eyes; are here in considerable numbers. The stork of Mount Caucasus (*Ardea Virgo*, in Russian *Gorschkoy Iurav*), with grey feathers, red eyes, and a tuft of feathers on the head, is kept here in the farm-yards, perfectly tame.

The Dnieper, which is the celebrated Borysthenes of the ancients, is so rapid, particularly on its right bank, that the boatmen are obliged to take every precaution to avoid being carried away by it. Its waters are agitated by a violent wind, which rises every day about four o'clock in the afternoon. Its left bank is covered with a kind of reed (*Arundo donak*), which grows up to an unusual height, and abounds in swans (in Russian *Lebed*); pelicans (in Russian *Baba*); red-coloured ducks, whose diminutive feet are scarcely able to sustain their weighty bodies; water-hens; all kinds of snipes; and beautiful red thrush (*Turdus roseus*). handles of penknives are made of the beak of the pelican.

The island of Kortyz lies lower down the river than the cataract of Velliga. It is nine versts in diameter, and is surrounded on three sides by rocks of granite, of upwards of 60 feet high, which give it a very romantic appearance. It derives its name from the Polish word *Chortz*, a hound; as it was formerly remarkable for the excellent quality of its hounds. I have in no other spot seen such a quantity of mushrooms as here. In the month of May, the banks of the Dnieper appear as if they were covered with snow, on account of the quantity of a kind of shrub which bears white blossoms, and which the Russians call *Volschannina*; I believe, that it is the *Vilurnum Tinus*. This river is only navigable for large ships forty versts below Cherson. By means of a machine, called a camel, ships of war may be worked up the river as far as Kysemis, a village which belongs to prince Besborodko.

After having passed the Dnieper at Krementschuk, I entered the little town of Krinkoff, in which there is a botanical garden, which contains nothing remarkable, although it has been laid out, and is maintained at the expence of the emperor.

The road from Krinkoff to Elizabethgrad and Catharinoslav is extremely mountainous. These mountains, which extend as far as the sea of Azoff, contain gold mines, which, however, are not very productive; the river Berda, from which they take their name, contains great quantities of beautiful granites, particularly in the neighbourhood of the fortress of Petrovka.

Alexandria, a small town, which contains 870 inhabitants, lies between Krinkoff and Elizabethgrad: the meadows on both sides

of the road are extremely rich, and are covered with game of all kinds: deer, hares, and bustards, seen divested of their natural timidity, and approach the carriages as they pass.

Elizabethgrad lies in a beautiful valley, which is watered by the Ingul. There is a great number of windmills on the heights which surround the town; as every innkeeper is obliged to have one, to obtain respect amongst the Cossacks. Elizabethgrad has the appearance of a Dutch town, as all the avenues approaching it are ornamented with trees, and the river runs between the fortress and the town. It has five churches, and 12,000 inhabitants. The town, which owes its foundation to the empress Elizabeth, is the capital of New Sérvia; the fortress was constructed by general Meder, but would not hold out long against a European army which should besiege it in form; as the besieging army would no longer be exposed to the fire of its batteries, after having passed the Ingul. The country between the Ingul and the Bog, was formerly the residence of the Nogai Tatars. The principal forests in this country are those called Neroubay, Welikyless, Matronin, and Tschornoyless. The last-mentioned of these furnished the timber for the construction of the Russian fleet in the Black Sea. It is called Tschornoyless, or Black Forest, on account of its being so thickly grown as to prevent the light from penetrating into it.

A considerable quantity of saffron grows on the banks of the Ingul, in the neighbourhood of Elizabethgrad. But the inhabitants are so ignorant, that they have never turned it to any account. I have procured a beautiful colour from it, by leaving its stalks to dry, and then rubbing them.

The distance from Elizabethgrad to Olgiopol is 131 versts; Olgiopol is a very healthy spot, as its name imports; the inhabitants are chiefly Moldavians, who established themselves here during the wars between the Russians and Turks. They are mostly graziers, and are very opulent; but they are so laconic in their answers, and at the same time so penurious and inhospitable, that one seldom hears any thing from them but *Noui*, or *Nouschdi*—We know nothing, We have nothing. The air is so pure and healthy here, that, although in the last war with the Turks, the Russian army, in which I served, consisting of twenty battalions of infantry, sixty-six squadrons of cavalry, and twelve thousand Cossacks, was for some time encamped here, we had but few sick; and many of the sick whom we brought with us recovered their health in a few days. The town is situated on an eminence, at the foot of which the Sindcha falls into the Bug. The former of these rivers was once the boundary between Russia and Poland: the latter divides Russia from Turkey, and

the latter country from Poland; so that the cannon which we fired here re-echoed in the three empires. The communication between Russia and Poland is effected by means of a ferry over the Sinucha, at Boggopol, a town which is chiefly inhabited by Jews, and belongs to Count Potoeki; and the ferry over the Bug is at the little Turkish town of Olta, whither Charles the XIIth fled, after having lost the battle of Pultava: a Pascha resided in Olta at that time. In the last war between the Russians and Turks, the former laid a bridge, consisting of thirty-two pontoons over the Bug at Olgiopol, where it is 378 feet wide; the principal magazines of the army were also in this city. There are a number of storks' nests on the roofs of almost all the houses at Olgiopol; the air is filled, towards evening, with the insect called *Scarabæus rhinoceros*, which is a kind of cockchafer. About seven versts from this spot is the romantic village belonging to general Tschely, which still retains its Greek name Emygea. When the Greeks abandoned it, it was taken possession of by the Nogaian Tatars, from whom the present inhabitants are descended.

The whole of the Russian army, under the command of prince Potemkin, was encamped in 1789 on the heights between Olgiopol and Emygea; however, before I advance into Bessarabia and Moldavia, I shall say a few words relative to the Zaporog Cossacks, which are at present dispersed throughout different parts of the empire, and relative to the government of Catharinoslav, the most extensive that ever existed in Europe.

The kings of Poland, to whom the whole of the country on the banks of the Dnieper belonged, were obliged to keep a considerable force here, to prevent the different hordes of Tatars from destroying the forests, or the fish of the Dnieper; both of which formed important objects of revenue. But the expence which this measure occasioned; induced king Stephanns Battori to offer various privileges to such persons, as should think proper to colonize and defend the exposed district. Several persons from Little Russia established themselves in the neighbourhood of the celebrated cataracts of the Dnieper, called Nenasilytzki, and enticed a number of vagabonds of different countries and religions to join them, and their numbers multiplied in a short time to such a degree, that they had no longer any thing to dread from the Tatars, and extended themselves on both sides of the Dnieper, as far as Cherson. They formed a code of laws, the most important of which were, that the chief of the state should be elective; that the most perfect equality should exist amongst the subjects; that the land should be considered common property; and that the females should be confined in villages as-

signed to them; distinct from those inhabited by the men, and that they should be enjoyed *promiscuously* and in common. Lastly, they gave themselves the name of Cossack, from the word Kossa, a sickle, which instrument they used on the day of battle, instead of a standard. They made themselves formidable to the Tatars, and revolted against the Poles, who, during the reign of Wladislaus, attempted to deprive them of their privileges. The Cossacks solicited the aid of the Tzar of Muscovy, Alexis Michaelovitch, at which time their state was perfectly well organised, and was governed by Chmelnitzky, a man of great courage and immense wealth. All the public acts of his reign, and of that of his successor Mazeppa, began with the usual formula of crowned heads, "We by the grace of God, &c. &c." He founded some monasteries, in one of which it is said there are several manuscripts relative to the history of this nation and of Poland.

As Mazeppa, contrary to his expectation, could not prevail upon the whole of the Zaporog Cossacks to espouse the cause of Charles XII. and as several other nations, which also bore the name of Cossacks, but had different laws from those of the Zaporogs, refused to take part against the Russians; he entered into the service of Sweden with 3000 Zaporogs, who were attached to him. The battle of Pultava decided the fate of the Cossacks. Peter the Great banished them from Russia, and they were constrained to fly to the Clan of the Tatars, who received orders from the Turkish government to give them that tract of land which lies between Akerman and Bender, but to watch their movements with the greatest vigilance. The Empress Anne, who was engaged in war with the Turks, seeing the advantages which she might derive from the Cossacks, gave them an invitation to return to their native country, which they joyfully accepted of; and as hordes of criminals and vagabonds flocked to them from all countries, their numbers increased in a wonderful degree; but they at length became so turbulent that Catharine II. determined to deprive the nation of its independence, and to oblige it to submit to the laws of Russia. Some regiments received orders to surround their newly-built capital city Pokrofsk, which measure was immediately put in execution; and when the Zaporogs were hemmed in on all sides, it was proposed to them, either to quit Russia, or to till their lands, marry, &c. &c. like other Russian subjects. Some thousands of them went over to the Turks, but the more numerous and better part of the nation were portioned out into different villages, received lands, and were treated in every respect as Russian subjects.

Prince Potemkin raised a regiment of them, 'called the brave Zaporogs, a title which they rendered themselves worthy of in 1788, at Otschakov, by taking the island of Berezan by storm. The mountain on which the fortress was situated, was extremely steep and difficult to climb, but the Zaporogs ran up it with intrepidity, and drove the Turks from their entrenchments. It was a singular circumstance, that twenty armed boats in the Turkish fleet, commanded by Hassan Pacha, was at the same time manned by emigrant Zaporogs.

So long as the Zaporogs formed an independant nation on the banks of the Dnieper, they had a number of singular customs, some of which I shall relate.

I can answer for the truth of what I advance, as I was employed during the whole of the war, and had numerous opportunities of conversing with the most enlightened of them; and as I took up my winter-quarters in the house of a Zaporog, in Puschkareffta, who had been Attaman of the nation before it was deprived of its independance.

The chief of this nation was called Koschawoy, and each village was commanded by an Attaman. It is incorrect, that foreign authors call the chief of the Cossacks, Hettman or Attaman, it is only the Cossacks of the Don who are commanded by a Hettman. Amongst the Zaporogs, the Attamans were as completely subordinate to the Koschawoy as the meanest of the subjects. At the election of the Koschawoy, the nation was assembled in the Setsch, the capital city, and he was generally chosen from amongst the Attamans; but sometimes a common Zaporog was raised to the dignity. The person of whom the public made choice, continued Koschawoy for life, unless the commission of some heinous crime rendered it necessary to divest him of his authority. On the death or abdication of a Koschawoy, a day was appointed to chuse his successor; and the different candidates made the nation acquainted with the heroic deeds which they had achieved, either in battle or in the chase. The commonest Zaporogs had it in their power to insult the candidates, not only with words but with blows. "Feel," they said to him on this occasion, "feel how this smarts, and take care not to inflict any greater punishment than necessity requires." He who bore the greatest number of blows with patience, was elected Koschawoy, provided he had already given proofs of his courage. The Zaporogs incorporated persons of all nations and religions with themselves; but the adoption or naturalization was attended with some particular ceremonies. As soon as the candidate presented himself for admission, the Attaman of the village, with which he expressed a desire to

be incorporated, exhorted him in the most earnest manner to renounce his project.

The painful precarious mode of life of the Cossacks was represented to him in the most frightful colours. Every person had a right to insult, and beat him; but if he persisted in his determination, he was stripped naked, and his cloaths were burned in his presence. He was then clothed in the coarse woollen dress of the Cossacks, and was presented with the square felt cloak (*burka*) which the Cossacks always hang on their shoulder, on the side from whence the wind blows. Thus dressed, he was given to a Zaporog, whom he was obliged to serve as a slave for a year. At the expiration of the year he was admitted amongst the Zaporogs, and partook of their toils and of their rewards. Two Zaporogs always lived in the same house, and ate and slept together, and were waited upon by those who wished to be admitted amongst them. Whatever they acquired in their excursions into the Turkish and Russian empires, or in the chase, was divided, with the most scrupulous honesty, amongst the community at large. But the prisoners whom they made in their frequent invasions, the married men, and those who braved public opinion so far as to content themselves with one woman, were excluded from all share in the spoil. This distribution was executed with so much good faith, that in the year 1778, after the river had been drawn, and the fish sold, the Zaporog sent the sum of five rubles eighty copeks to Prince Orloff, whom they had elected an honorary member of their state.

If a foreigner entered their territory, they received him and his suite with the greatest hospitality. This hospitality was carried by them to such a degree, that a Zaporog never left his hut without setting bread, salt, spirituous liquor, and sometimes flesh-meat, on the table, that the traveller who might happen to arrive in his absence, should find some refreshment. The owner of the house in which the traveller lodged, was his guardian angel. The doors had no locks, only wooden bolts; however, every thing that he possessed was considered sacred. But this good treatment only lasted so long as the traveller continued on the territory of the Zaporogs; the moment that he passed the frontiers, he was followed and plundered of whatever articles of value he possessed. The women lived in villages, each of which was governed by an Attaman, and were forbidden, on pain of death, to set their foot in the *Setch*, or residence of the men. Each Zaporog had a right to make use of them as fancy suggested. When a woman was pregnant, no person gave himself any trouble to ascertain who was the father of the child, as

it belonged to the nation at large. If it was a boy, it was brought into the Setsch at four years old, and was educated there; but the girls were left with the mother, and as soon as they were marriageable, were obliged to submit to the embraces of whatever free Zaporog took a liking to them. Four women always lived in the same hut. If a Zaporog fell in love with a girl, and expressed a desire to marry her, he was allowed to do so, but he lost all right to share in the produce of the chase, and was obliged to till the land, and pay a certain tribute, which was divided amongst the Zaporogs of the Setsch, who styled themselves free and noble. It is a singular fact, that marriage was greatly respected by this savage nation, and that, from the moment that a marriage was concluded, no Zaporog dared to usurp or infringe on the rights of the husband. An ignominious death was the punishment of adultery. The Zaporogs had but two capital punishments. Either the criminal was hanged on the first tree, or he was tied to a stake in some public place, and a bottle of strong liquor and a stick were laid on the ground by him. Each person who passed by, drank a glass of the liquor, and gave the criminal a blow on whatever part of the body he thought proper; and this lasted until the culprit expired. In cases of theft, which were extremely rare, a string of horse hair was drawn through the fleshy part of the culprit's ears; a Zaporog held the ends of it in one hand, and a whip in the other, with which he flogged the criminal through the streets of the Setsch, until his ears were torn through. Those who lived in the villages were persons who had been prisoners or stolen, the married men and the women in general. These were all obliged to till the land, and to furnish a certain tribute in kind to the inhabitants of the Setsch. Not only the Zaporogs of the Setsch, but the Attaman and justice of each village, received, on a certain day, a portion of bread, meat, brandy, &c. sufficient for a week or a month. Each Zaporog was bound to deposit the booty which he had made, in the hands of the person who was appointed to receive it. The most trifling act of dishonesty in the performance of this duty was punished with death, and was easily discovered, as two always lived together, and there were no locks in the houses. The cloaths and burla of the Zaporogs were woven by the women, and delivered on an appointed day. A considerable part of the nation went every year to the neighbouring fairs in Russia and Poland, and expended in a few days continued debauchery the earnings of the whole year.

The Zaporogs were obliged to give a tenth part of their earnings to the church of Pokrofsk, the riches of which were im-

mense, and were afterwards transported to Petersburg to adorn the church of St. Isaack. These riches consisted of an altar and several large chalices of massive silver, and more than 400 sacerdotal vestments, embroidered with pearls and precious stones. The partition which separated the sanctuary from the body of the church, was also of solid silver, ornamented with pillars of gold.

When the Zaporogs formed an independant nation, under the protection of Russia, they could send 50,000 men into the field. They paid no tribute to the Russian crown, but were obliged to furnish Russia with black cattle at a fixed price. They generally stole these cattle from their neighbours, and even from the Russians themselves. They were also obliged to purchase their spirituous liquors from the Russians; and it is probable, that had they conducted themselves peaceably, they would not have been molested. But their continued invasions and robberies on the frontiers of Russia, and the dangers with which they threatened the inhabitants of the new town of Cherson, induced the Empress to deprive them of their independance, and subject them completely to the yoke of Russia.

I shall not dwell on the ancient history of the government of Catharinoslav. Almost all the nations who have emigrated from the north to the south-east or west, have passed through or established themselves in it; hence arise the great number of foreign names and customs which are to be met with here.

In some places, for instance, the Slavonian custom of rolling or eating boiled eggs on the graves of departed relations, is preserved; and also that of singing, in spring and autumn, hymns ending with the words *Dido* and *Lado*, which correspond to *Venus* and *Cupid*. The present inhabitants of this government are, Russians, Poles, Servians, Greeks, Armenians, some Swedes and Germans. The Russians are not in considerable number, and are chiefly peasants, who have run away from their masters. A colony of invalids has been established at Nicopol, and is in a tolerably prosperous state. The Roscoluicks at Solotarefka are extremely rich.

The Poles are very numerous; but as they are in general an idle vicious people, they do not continue long in one place, and frequently abandon the villages which they have themselves built.

The Servians and Hungarians established themselves here during the reign of the empress Elizabeth. They inhabit the cities of Elizabethgrad, Alexandria, Myrgorod, and Zentov; are extremely opulent, and have given this district the name of New Servia: they formerly provided the Russian regiments of huz-

zars with recruits, but this is no longer the case. The Greeks and Armenians come originally from the Crimea, and inhabit principally the district of Bachnuth. They are almost all graziers, and are generally so rich, that they have no reason to regret the vineyards which were abandoned by their ancestors. As wood is scarce in this part of the country, the inhabitants burn a kind of sedge, which they call *burian*, and dried cow-dung mixed with grass. In order to render the cow-dung fit for burning, they drive a long pole into the ground, and heap up cow-dung and grass round, which they tread until it has acquired the necessary consistency; when dry, they pull out the pole, and cut the fuel with a spade, in proportion as they want to make use of it. This kind of firing gives a very strong heat, but is not calculated for the kitchen, as it renders the meat which is roasted at it perfectly black, and gives it an unpleasant smell.

Those of the inhabitants who are said to be of Swedish origin, are about 900 in number. They are all from the Livonian island *Dagho*, and are a mixture of Courlanders, Esthonians, and Finlanders. They live mostly in the neighbourhood of *Kisikirmen*; they are of the Moravian religion, and their dialect, which is a compound of the languages of the above-mentioned countries, is very difficult to be understood. The Germans, with the exception of those who live in the neighbourhood of *Elizabethgrad*, are in a deplorable condition, which is occasioned by their drunkenness and phlegmatic indolence. The Mennonists are mostly from *Dantzic*, and were 1130 persons in number, at the period of their emigration. They enjoy considerable privileges: then travelling expences were paid, and each family received five hundred rubles to purchase stock and implements of husbandry, and also fifteen copecks a day until the first harvest. Sixty desätines of land were assigned to each family; during the first thirteen years they were exempt from all rent and taxes, and, at the expiration of that period, they were bound only to pay fifteen copecks yearly for each desätine.

They furnish no recruits, but are much more advantageous to the state than the colony of Moravians at *Sarepta*, as these are fond of emigration, and are obliged to send to the principal seat of their religion such part of their earnings as is not necessary to their subsistence.

The Mennonists inhabit the island of *Chortiz*, a considerable tract of land in the neighbourhood of *Kisikirmen*, and the banks of the river *Conskie Voda*, which the Turks call *Dgilkason*.

The climate of the government of *Catharinoslav* is very changeable. I have frequently seen *Reaumur's* thermometer rise to 35° in the month of July. Thunder-storms are frequent

and dangerous here. An atmosphere of a yellowish hue, a wind which raises the dust like a pillar into the air, and a dreadful torrent of rain, are the forerunners of a thunder-storm, of which no adequate idea can be formed. I was overtaken by a storm of this kind whilst I was on a march from Akerman to Palanka, which lasted three hours. The horses of the regiment refused to advance; and, in the squadron which I commanded, a dragoon and three horses were killed. The nights here are generally extremely cool, and it is advisable to change one's cloathing at the setting of the sun. The soil may be divided into three classes: The first is a loam, or clay, mixed with sand; the second, in the neighbourhood of the Black Forest, is black and extremely fertile; the third, near Krinkoff, is a peat marsh. Although the greatest part of the soil is remarkably rich, the farmer cannot hope even for a middling crop the first year, as the earth is perfectly filled with the roots of weeds, which are thickly interwoven with each other; and, a few hours after it has been turned up by the plough, it is covered with saltpetre. Unremitting industry gets the better of this evil, and in the third year the harvest is abundant. The only woods in this government are in the district of Elizabethgrad. The wandering tribes who resorted formerly to this country to feed their droves and flocks destroyed the woods for the purpose of enlarging the pasture-grounds, and to prevent their cattle from escaping from them. That considerable forests formerly existed in this country, is proved by some old treaties which were concluded by the inhabitants and the Tartars, in virtue of which the former were allowed to fish to the distance of sixty versts beyond Otschakov, and the latter had liberty to cut wood to the distance of sixty versts behind Kisikermen. The Dnieper, or Borysthenes, is also frequently called the Woody River in old writings. However, the immense quantities of cattle of every description which feed here at present, would eat down any young trees which the farmers or landholders might think proper to plant. A great part of the landholders of this country have no slaves, or peasants obliged to work for them, as is the case in most parts of Russia, but are obliged to employ either gypsies, or some of the wandering tribes, who pass through the country at the different seasons of ploughing, sowing, and reaping. When these wanderers continue a sufficient length of time to be constantly employed, they make an agreement with the landholder for the whole year's labour, and receive a fifth part of all the crops. In winter they live in tents or huts, round the house of the landlord, and consume whatever they have earned in summer. If they be dissatisfied, they take their hay and corn along with them, and fix their

abodes in the neighbouring towns and villages so long as they have means of support. When a peasant agrees to enter into the service of a landholder, the latter must give him a certain quantity of land, free of all taxes, for three years, and as much corn of all kinds as is necessary to sow it. Even when this period is expired, the peasant must not only work a day in the week for his landlord, but must repay that which he has received in advance before he can leave him. The discontented character of these men, and the neighbourhood of the Turks and Poles, oblige landlords to treat them in a very mild manner. In the interior of the country, however, particularly in the neighbourhood of Kaydack, they are more severely dealt with; they are there obliged to work two days in the week for their landlord, and to give him a portion of their crops as rent; and also, a certain portion of corn for each pair of oxen which they keep for the plough. The peasants here are not considered as slaves, and formerly were exempted from furnishing recruits; however, at present, they are obliged to furnish their quota.

Of all the species of grain which are grown here, rye, called by the Russians *arnautka*, and by the Turks *arnaut bogda*, is that which thrives the most. Its grains are much larger and yellower than those of the common kind. It runs into straw a good deal, but its ears are at the same time very long, and so compact, that even in the month of October no grains fall from them. It is usually sowed thinly, and is threshed in the open field, on a floor made of clay, on which the corn is trod out by oxen, or horses, instead of being threshed with flails. It is generally cut with a scythe, to which a rake is attached; but sometimes it is reaped with a sickle.

The proprietors of estates have not the privilege here of distilling brandy and other liquors, as is the case throughout almost the whole of the north of Europe, unless they have made a particular agreement with the person to whom government has farmed out the monopoly of the distilleries in the province. The liquor which is distilled here from rye, is extremely ill tasted and weak; however, the noblemen, and even such of the *Cossaks* as are at their ease, have a better kind, which is rendered still more palatable by the various fruits which grow here in the greatest abundance. The gardens here are generally let out to merchants in different parts of Russia, who dry the fruit which they produce and sell it. In the year 1790, I was quartered in *Smeoff*, a spot which was to furnish recruits to the regiment to which I belonged. I lodged at the house of a peasant of the name of Vassily Popov, who had too orchards, for which he received 780 rubles rent from a merchant of *Tver*, and still

reserved fruit trees enough to supply his family, consisting of fourteen persons, and mine, eleven in number, with fruit and with cherry-brandy; and still his orchards were by no means the largest in the neighbourhood.

Every nobleman pays a tax of from one and a half to three copecks for each desätine which he possesses. The peasants of the crown are obliged to pay five copecks for a desätine, of which each peasant has thirty; the Zaporogs alone have sixty-six desätines.

This government lies between the Dnieper, the Bug, and the Sinucha, and is intersected by the Ingul and Inguletz, two rivers which are called Argul and Arguletz, in Delisle's Map. The Ingul contains a fish which is perfectly round, and measures six inches from the head to the tail; it has no fins, and is not thicker than a goose quill. The banks of the Inguletz are extremely beautiful, and are thickly planted with fruit-trees. The river itself resembles the Rhone and Guadiana, as it loses itself under ground for a considerable distance. It is a considerable breadth in all parts of it, but where it empties itself into the Dnieper it is two versts broad. At the village of Davidobrod, on the Inguletz, about eighty versts from Cherson, there are two statues of colossal size, which have been found on a Kurgan, which is the name given to the hillocks of earth in the Stepps, or extensive plains of this country. It is not known whether these statues represented divinities or the sovereigns of the country. They have extravagantly broad faces, bracelets on the arms and legs, and a figure of the sun on their breasts; they are cut out of a kind of greyish sand-stone.

Near Krivoj-Rok, which is a post-station on the Inguletz, there are numerous slate-quarries, and farther up the country are the quarries of sand-stone, of which Cherson is built. There are immense numbers of the insect called *scolopendra morsitans*, in the language of the Tartars *kirkajak*, to be found in these quarries; and it is singular enough, that this insect is only to be met with here and in the Crimea. It is a species of the millepedes, but it is generally five or six inches long: its body, which is of a dark brown colour, has ten trapezoidal protuberances, or shields, each of which has two feet on each side; so that the insect has forty feet in all. The twenty-first protuberance forms the head, which is armed with two prongs, in the form of pincers, by means of which it fastens itself after biting. Its bite is as venomous as that of the tarantula, and the Tatars always carry some combustible material along with them to burn out the part which has been wounded.

The road from Elizabethgrad to Cherson is a continued but
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a gradual ascent; and, in many parts of it, the rolling of the carriage produces a noise as if it were hollow. There are extensive meadows on both sides of it, in which the grass grows to an extraordinary height. A kind of plum (*prunus spinosa*, in Russian *tiorn*;) grows here in great abundance, and the inhabitants extract a strong, heady, but agreeable liquor from it. The *cornus mascula*, in Russian *deron*; the *cratægus major*, in Russian *shipovnik*; the red currant, *ribes*, in Russian *poretschky*; the elder, *sambucus ebulus*, in Russian *bogayischnik*, are all abundant here. I have seen otolans here in winter, which have a remarkable good flavour; they are called *daraschniky* by the Russians; their colour is a dazzling white; and, although they are winter-birds of passage, I have seen them near Cherson, so early as the latter end of July. I have also seen here great numbers of bustards, in Russian *drachwa*; Arabian geese, in Russian *strepet*; lapwings, and bitterns. The conquest of the Crimea, and the trade to which it has given rise, has infested this country with field-rats of an enormous size, whose numbers increase so rapidly, that it will be difficult to get rid of them: they are called in Russian *puntouch*;; and the Tatars call them *ollsum sitschan*. A kind of grape, not larger than a currant, grows wild in the islands of the Dnieper; it is called in Russian *lypinas*, and is dried for exportation.

The flocks of sheep furnish a principal part of the exports of this country. It is not unusual to see several thousands of them grazing together in an extensive plain, even in the middle of winter; for it is only in cases of hard and continued frost, which rarely occur here, that they are fed in folds, which are here called *coshary*. They are shorn but once a year, and that is in spring. Their wool is by no means equal in fineness to that of the sheep of the Crimea. The Calmucks and Tatars have a peculiar mode of making it beautifully brilliant and curly. The moment the lamb is yeaned, it is sewed up in a sack of coarse linen, and moistened with warm water, and rubbed with the hand in different directions every day; this generally lasts a month, when it is taken out of the sack; but if the wool be not yet sufficiently curly, it is sewed up again, and the operation is repeated.

In the Ukraine, it is usual to cut the lamb out of the dam's belly; after which it is treated in the manner I have just described. Lambs which are of a greyish colour, are more valuable than any other. At Betschetillofka, the spot where the finest skins are to be met with, I have seen some sold for three rubles a piece, although they were no more than a few inches long.

There are two sorts of sheep in the government of Cathari-

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noslav; one of which was brought originally from Russia; it is only esteemed on account of its flesh; but in the Ukraine it produces excellent wool. The second sort comes originally from Moldavia and Wallachia; the sheep of this species have thick tails, consisting of a solid lump of fat, which are often so heavy, that it is necessary to tie small carriages with wheels, to them, in order that the sheep may be the better able to drag them along. These thick-tailed sheep are here called Woloskiya Ovzy, and in Crimea Tschontuch. They were brought by the Moldavians from Caraman, which is their native country. The old Greek authors call them Provatonys Caramannias.

In the little river Suchoklëga, there is a considerable number of snakes of that species which is called *Polös* or *Coluber prester*. I have seen one of them of an immense size, which had killed one of our huzzars.

In the vallies and cavities of the mountains, which were formerly inhabited by the Zaporogs, there are a great many wild cats, which were made wild by those people in order to improve their skin: to effect this purpose, they dug deep pits in the earth, in which they confined cats of the most favourite colours; and the loss of freedom and perpetual darkness, made these animals so wild, that it was difficult to take them in the snares which were put at the mouth of the pit. Every three days they received a certain portion of raw flesh; and from time to time the males were taken out to prevent them from killing the young. The skin of these wild cats is extremely warm; but never loses its disagreeable smell, and is said to be prejudicial to the health.

An immense quantity of wild grapes grows in the forest called Tschuta; but there are parts of this forest, particularly that called Tschornoy less, into which no human being has ever penetrated. There are various kinds of plants in the Crimea which also grow in White Russia, but are not to be met with in the government of Catharinoslav, although it lies between those two countries. One, which is called yagel or yaglyza, is eaten by the common people, who find it very palatable. The horses are fed here with the leaves of the water-nut; and Pliny relates in the tenth chapter of the twenty-second book, that the Thracians and wandering tribes of this country fed their horses in the same manner.

The horses which graze on the uncultivated banks of the Bug, are remarkable for their activity and spirit.

They are small, have but little mane and tail, are generally of a mouse colour, and have a black streak along the back. They graze in herds, which consist of eight or ten stallions, and about a hundred mares; one of the strongest and most courageous of

the stallions leads the van, and another forms, as it were, the rear-guard; in this manner, these two stallions lead the herd to water twice a day. The stallions keep watch, whilst the mares and foals drink. If two such droves meet, a battle generally ensues, in which it is by no means unusual for some to lose their lives. These battles mostly take place in spring, when strange mares happen to fall in with a herd.

The following method is adopted to catch these horses. The peasants mark out the spot where the herd usually go to water, and lay snares in different passes which lead to it. Five or six men, provided with ropes, lie concealed near the places where the springs are laid; and as soon as one of the animals becomes entangled in the snare, the men dart out upon him, throw ropes round his neck, and disengage his feet to prevent him from doing himself an injury. None but the foals are kept, as the others pine away, and seldom survive their captivity; when a stallion or mare is caught, the others surround it, and the peasants have considerable difficulty in keeping them at a distance. In the year 1784, a Cossack caught a wild foal, which was marked with black and grey stripes, and made it a present to Prince Potemkin. But, notwithstanding all the pains which were taken with it, it pined away from the day that it lost its liberty, and died at the end of five weeks. When the tame mares escape from their stables, and get amongst a herd of wild stallions, they generally return in foal; and in these cases their foals are strong and active, but extremely difficult to be broke. An immense number of tame horses are left out to pasture the whole of the year in the Steppes on the banks of the Don, and have a certain number of herdsmen to watch them. These are also extremely shy, and it is difficult to saddle or harness them, or even to accustom them to feed on hay. These herds generally consist of above a thousand horses; they are called *tabuns*; they are sold principally for the light cavalry. The following mode is employed to catch them in the Steppes, on which they graze. Several mounted Cossacks surround the *tabun*, and force the scattered horses to assemble on one spot. The purchaser chuses those which he thinks will suit him, and two of the Cossacks gallop into the circle which is formed by their comrades, and separate the chosen horses from the others; they then ride after them at full speed, and endeavour to throw a rope, at the end of which there is a noose, or kind of running knot, over the neck of the horse which they wish to catch. They are so expert that they soon fasten the collar; however the horse generally struggles to such a degree, that the blood streams from his mouth and nose. He is tamed by being stinted in his food, and particularly

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in his drink; but the purchaser must long be on his guard not let him break loose; for in that case, it is almost impossible catch him again. As soon as these horses become tame, and are properly broke, they have most excellent qualities. They leap the broadest ditches with the greatest activity. They are extremely swift, patient of fatigue, swim well, stand fire, and are not daunted by danger. They never fatten, even with the best keeping. Russia will have excellent cavalry so long as the tabuns are paid proper attention to.

A part of this government is infested by a plague, which devastates the most fertile corn-fields and meadows, almost every second year; I allude to the locusts, in Russian called Tscharantsch, which flock hither in clouds in the beginning of August. They generally come from Egypt; from whence they pass into Natolia, devastate the island of Tauran, and the Crimea, and then spread themselves out as far as this country. The long journey seems to tire them, for hundreds of them are found dead or dying on the ground, in the direction in which they fly.

In their passage from one country to another, they form a kind of cloud, of more than a verst in length, and five or six fathom thick; and they fly in such a compact manner, that the light of day is obscured by them. When they alight on the ground which takes place twice a day, they make a noise which resembles the dashing of a wave against the shore, and in a few hours the corn field or meadow, on which they have alighted, is eaten perfectly bare. As soon as they rise again, the ground is perfectly covered with their dung, and with the carcases of those which have been crushed to death. They seldom penetrate farther into this country than Cherson, and about 100 versts up the Dnieper; but I have seen them once or twice in the government of Catharinoslav. Two causes lessen, in some degree, their devastating force: the first is a considerable number of sea-swallows, in Russian *stitchi*, which devour a great number of them on their passage; the second is a natural instinct, which embitters them so against each other, that millions of combatants fall dead to the ground, and the living suck their blood and flesh, till nothing but skin and bones are left. On the twenty-second of August 1791, a cloud of this kind passed by the spot where I was encamped with a detachment of the Russian army; as I had been informed that they were approaching, I gave orders to the troops to fire the moment they were within shot. They did so, and although thousands fell, I could not perceive the smallest diminution in the dimensions of the passing cloud. When the weather is fine, and the sky clear, they rise early, but in cloudy weather they rise late in the day. They return in the di-

rection from whence they came; and I have not observed that they require any particular wind, on the contrary, I have seen them fly with a side wind, and even against the wind; but in this case they move very slowly. The Tatars roast and eat them; and I was tempted once by curiosity, to partake of a dish of them, and found that they tasted like roasted chessnuts.

Both this province and the Ukraine contain a great number of earthen hillocks, which seem to be the work of human hands, and are called *kurgany*, because it is usual to find earthen figures in them, which are called by this name in the dialect of the country. It is impossible, as some people maintain, that these mounds can have been formed by the wind, as they consist of the same kind of thick loamy soil, which surrounds them. It is also extremely improbable that they have been raised by the wandering Tatars for the purpose of overseeing their flocks, as there are frequently six or seven at the distance of a few feet from each other; whereas a single hillock in these extensive plains would be sufficient to enable the herdsman to see around him to the distance of several miles. My opinion is, that they are burial-places, which the Tatars raised in honour of their departed chiefs. I have examined more than fifty of them, and although I found in some of them, human bones, harness, coarse vases, &c. still the greater number of them contained nothing of the kind. In the largest *kurgan* in this province, which is known here by the name of Galaganka, I found the skeletons of seven men and five horses, some bows and arrows, silver buckles, and clasps of harness. History informs us, that different nations buried their heros and distinguished personages, with their arms, horses, and dogs. The wandering Tatars considered the graves of their ancestors as sacred, and probably performed their religious ceremonies in the neighbourhood of them.

As the inhabitants of the government of Catharinoslav are composed of so many different nations, it is not extraordinary that a very striking variety should be observable in their manners and customs. The Russians, the Poles, and the Moldavians have the same, or nearly similar customs. The old people still preserve the customs of their country, and endeavour to imprint them on the minds of their children with the stamp of veneration. One of these customs is, to seat the bride on a tun filled with lees, and in this manner she is put on a car, and driven about the village, and the bridegroom walks round her three times, and gives her three blows. A red flag is hung out at the house where the wedding is celebrated; and the shift of the bride, which is shewn to the guests, is the proof of the consummation of the marriage. The bride and bridegroom retire when supper

is about half over, and return to the company as soon as the shift has been held up to view by the person who brought about the marriage; this person is always an old woman, and is called in Russian, *Schwarha*. Before the company sit down to supper, a thin cake, stuck thick with as many wooden pegs as there are guests, is broke on the head of the bride, and the greater the number of pieces into which it breaks, the more prosperous is the union expected to be. A custom, which is extremely praiseworthy, is that of spreading tables in the courtyard of the house where the marriage is celebrated, for all the poor who think proper to partake of the feast. I was at a wedding at Smooff, where, besides the invited guests, four hundred persons received abundance of meat and drink. At funerals, the corpse, the coffin, and the grave, are covered with flowers, and in winter, with sage, which is dried for this purpose.

The women wear large necklaces of glass, or red-coloured wood, which are called *mansta*. The men wear the Cossack dress and the *burka*. The Germans who reside here are poor, because they are idle and dissipated. The Greeks and Armenians are, for the most part, opulent merchants in the towns. The Mennonists principally cultivate the land, and are, in general, rich.

The Crimea, that celebrated peninsula in ancient and fabulous history, has been so accurately described by professor Pallas, that I shall refer my reader to the work of that celebrated naturalist. The description which Mrs. Guthrie has given of the Crimea, is written in a pleasing style, but is by no means correct, and I shall take the liberty of making some remarks on many of her observations. I do not wish to insinuate that she has intentionally misstated facts; but a description which is romantic has peculiar charms for a female eye; whereas, I, as an old cavalry-officer, may be supposed to be less liable to be captivated by delusive appearances.

The city of Cherson lies in $46^{\circ} 42'$ latitude, and 47° longitude, two hundred and twenty versts from Elizabethgrad, on the right bank of the Dnieper, which, at the village of Kiskimen, thirty versts from here, forms a narrow or mouth, of from eight to fifteen versts wide. There was a fortress formerly on the spot where the city now stands, which was built by the father of the celebrated field-marshal Rumanzov.

In 1777 General Annibal laid the foundation of the present city of Cherson, which at that time was only meant to be a fortress, and a dock for building ships. Brigadier Hacks, in 1803, and General Korsakoff, in 1804, increased the works of the fortification, and enlarged the town, which is situated on an em-

nence, in the midst of an immense plain, and has two suburbs, which are however at the distance of two versts from it. The cathedral church, the arsenal, the admiralty-house, the dock, in which seven ships can be built at the same time, the immense flight of steps which lead down to the Dnieper, and the battery of stone which is built at the level of the water, are the principal objects which attract the traveller's attention in the city. The best-built houses are those inhabited by the Greeks in the suburbs. The trade of the city is at present considerable. A number of French and Austrian ships, which descend the Danube as far as Galacz, lie for some time in this harbour, and are obliged to hoist a Russian flag; and there are generally three or four hundred Greek barks lying in the harbour, which carry three or four hundred quintals each. The articles with which they are generally laden, are, Turkish leather, honey, wax, Greek wines, soap, cloth, iron, &c. &c. The houses are built of a kind of stone, which is found at the mouth of the Ingulez, almost fifteen versts from here. The great quantity of yellow amaranth which grows in all the windows, gives the exterior of the houses an agreeable appearance. The air is extremely unhealthy, and the impure vapours which are exhaled from the marshes on the banks of the Dnieper, occasion the disease which is called in these countries the Crim fever. During three months of the year, the heat is almost insupportable during the day; but towards six o'clock in the evening the air becomes extremely cool. The town is badly supplied with water; that which the inhabitants make use of for drinking, must be brought from a considerable distance. There are but few cottages in the plain which surrounds Cherson, as the inhabitants live only on the banks of the rivers. The plants, which grow in such abundance in the neighbouring province of Catharinoslaw, such as the *crambe orientalis*, in Russian, *katran*; *stipa pennata*, in Russian *kawyl*; *scirpus campestris*, in Russian *tschkalott*, are no longer to be met with here. These plains and the adjacent country, were formerly inhabited by Roman emigrants and exiles, whom the Mongul Tartars incorporated with their province, called Osov, in the thirteenth century. The Greeks left the country uncultivated and uninhabited; partly because it was continually exposed to the incursions of the barbarians, and partly because it was in the neighbourhood of the sea, and was consequently liable to be pillaged by the pirates, who frequently landed on its coasts. The principal of the Greek colonies were in Bessarabia and in the government of Catharinoslaw.

I once, near the village of Oknina, that species of eagle, which in the Alps of Switzerland, is called the lamb-eagle.

A party with which I went out shooting, killed two of these formidable birds, which, however, were smaller than those in Switzerland. One of them had three musket bullets in his body, and it was with difficulty that we could kill it. Its colour is a dark brown, with a yellowish spot on each feather; its beak is short, but astonishingly strong. An eagle of this kind can carry away a tolerable-sized lamb in its claws.

The foundation stone of the town of Nicolajev was laid by Prince Potemkin in the year 1789, in an angle which is formed by the Bug and the Ingul.

One wind is sufficient to enable ships of tolerable size to come up as far as the harbour, which is not the case at Cherson, where several winds are necessary. Nicolajev lies in the midst of extensive deserts, in which the grass grows to an immense height, and furnishes numerous herds of horses (Tabuni) with pasture.

Dubossar is situated on a high hill, surrounded with orchards. The adjacent country must have been formerly tolerably populous, as there are several church-yards in the neighbourhood, which are perfectly filled with tomb-stones. I mention this town, merely because it is situated in the extensive plain of Otschakov, which I forgot to enumerate amongst the plains, or steppes (as they are called) of Russia.

It appears to me, that Mrs. Guthrie is incorrect in her hypothesis relative to the so called Tomb of Ovid; for it is impossible that this country can have been the place of exile of that celebrated poet. Prince Cantemir maintains, that Ovid resided, during his banishment, in the neighbourhood of Akerman, and in support of his opinion, quotes the following verses, which are said to have been found near Isatschky :

*Ille situs est vates, quem divi Cæsaris ira
Augusti patria cedere jussit humo.
Sæpe miser volui patriis occumbere terris,
Sed frustra ; hunc illi fata dedere locum.*

And in order to prove his opinion incontestably, as he thinks, he quotes the following verse of the poet :

Nec mea Sarmaticum contegat ossa solum.

And he adds, that the inhabitants of this country call the mouth of the Dnieper *Lakul Oviduli*. Others maintain that
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Tomiswar, near Warnæ, in the country anciently called Little Scythia, was the place of his exile.

In order to refute satisfactorily the opinion of Cantemir, it will only be necessary to observe, that Bessarabia, and particularly that part of it in which Akerman is situated, did not belong to the Romans, and consequently Augustus could not banish criminals thither. And as to the Moldavian name, Lakul Oviduli, it is of later origin; and it would be as absurd to attempt to establish any connection between it and the fate of the poet, as it is to derive the name Caransebes from *Cara mihi sedes*; which has been done, however, by a man of considerable literary reputation.

The poet himself asserts the contrary, in saying, "I do not inhabit the land of the Sarmatians, the Bessi and the Getæ, but these savage nations surround the place of my abode:—

Sauromatæ cingunt, fera gens, Bessique Getæque.

Trist. El. 10.

and farther:

Proxima Basternæ Sauromatæque tenent.

Besides, he did not live on this, but on the opposite bank of the Danube. The reader has only to examine the map, and to observe the position of Akerman and the course of the Danube, to be convinced, that if Ovid resided at the mouth of the Dnieper, he could not hear the rolling of the barbarians' cars on the ice of the Danube. This reasoning equally disproves the hypothesis, that he was banished to Tomiswar, near Warnæ.

In my opinion, the place of his residence was on the southern bank of the Danube, in the neighbourhood of Tulscha, which was the ancient Achillea, for this is the position of the ancient Tomi.

This confusion of names is unfortunately too frequent; and even if Ovid meant by the word *Tomos* the whole of the province of Tomitania, it would only serve to confirm my opinion. If Ovid resided in that spot, every thing that he relates relative to the barbarians, would be just; for he would there have been surrounded by the savage inhabitants of the neighbouring Bessarabia. He could see them thence descend the Danube in boats in summer, and in cars in winter. He could learn something of their language, as he himself asserts to have done; and the wild appearance of the Sarmatians and Bessi would have

justified his fears. The epitaph which has been quoted by Prince Cantemir, is evidently apocryphal. The poet says, that no person in the whole country around him understood the Latin language, and consequently no person in that country was capable of writing his epitaph. He had written an epitaph for himself, which is well known, and of which the following is the first verse :

Illic ego qui jaceo tenerorum lisor amorum.

Another argument against the hypothesis of Cantemir is, that Akerman was a populous city even at the remotest periods; and the poet assures us, that he saw nothing around him but the earth and sky, which evidently indicates that the country around him was a desert.

The mountain called Salgyr divides the Crimea into two almost equal parts, in which the climate, the soil, and all the productions of nature are quite different. The northern part seems to have been covered formerly by the sea, which, on retiring, left those extensive salt water lakes, which are the sources of the present wealth of this part of the country. This ingredient penetrates the whole of the soil in this part of the Crimea, and produces the most abundant and nourishing food for horses, dromedaries, horned cattle, and sheep. The most luxuriant crops of corn are grown in those parts where the rain and mountain streams have washed away the superfluous salt. Unfortunately, the population is not sufficient to bring the land to that high state of cultivation of which it is susceptible. The sea forms a thick white scum on the surface of the lakes, in summer, which gives them the appearance of being covered with ice; and if beneficent nature did not herself prepare this mineral for use, the Tatars, who have neither firing nor tools, nor industry, would be incapable of deriving any benefit from her liberality. There are neither trees nor hills in this part of the country, to shelter it from the piercing north-east wind. The southern part consists of a chain of fertile hills, which were inhabited for several centuries by Genoese, Venetians, &c. &c. until the Turks, animated by that jealousy and narrow policy which have always characterised them, excluded the commercial nations of Europe from the navigation of the Black Sea.

There is an old fortress, near Backtichisarai, which is called Tschifut Kaltschsy, or the Jew's Fortress, because it has been inhabited since the seventh century, by Jews, who at present form 237 families. I cannot agree with Mts. Guthrie, in praising the cleanliness of these Israelites. They are opulent, it is true,

and perhaps somewhat less filthy, than the generality of Jews in other countries. This fortress appears to me, to be the ancient Phuly, which Abulfeda calls Kyrck. This race of Jews, which is called here Karay Jaody, or the Black Jews, is hated and despised by all those of other countries. They follow the precepts of the Torah instead of the Talmud, and shave their heads. They reject the interpretations of the Rabbies, and consider only a few chapters of the Bible as being genuine. They are tolerated by the Tatars on account of their industry. The fortress is surrounded by a wall and watch-towers. As it is situated on the summit of a high rock, its inhabitants have no other water but that which is collected from rain in reservoirs, or which is carried up to it on asses.

Achtyar, which is at present called Sebastopol (the illustrious city) was the most celebrated commercial city of the kingdom of Colchis; but there is not the smallest vestige of its former splendour remaining. Its harbour is beautiful, and sufficiently capacious to contain a large fleet of men of war. I have not observed that the worm, which is so destructive to ships bottoms (*teredo navalis*, or the *calamitas navium*, of Linnæus) does so much mischief here as has been reported. There are nineteen large iron rings fastened in the rocks, which were formerly made use of to keep the ships to their moorings. Their height above the surface of the water seems to prove that the Black Sea has fallen considerably; and Diodorus Siculus says expressly, that the Black Sea forced its way through the Bosphorus, and sunk to the level of the Mediterranean.

The oval valley of Baydar, which is about twenty-six versts in length, and produces great abundance of fruit-trees, and fragrant plants, has been very poetically described in Guthrie's Travels; but it is indebted a good deal for its captivating appearance to the sterility of the surrounding country, and does not by any means deserve to be compared with the vallies of Switzerland, in the cantons of Glaris, Zug, Schwiz, Unterwalden, &c. Its inhabitants lead a happy pastoral life, and they are so indifferent with respect to the rest of the world, that many of them have never passed the mountains by which their native vale is surrounded. Some ancient ruins which are in Baydar give it a picturesque appearance.

The town of Baydar is not far from the southern coast of the Crimea, and the whole tract of the country between it and the Cimmeric Bosphorus was bespangled in ancient times with flourishing Greek cities.

That part of the coast which lies between Balaclava and Caffa, and which comprehends a space of 150 versts, was called

the *Climata* by the Greeks, and must have been peculiarly attractive to a commercial people, as well on account of its natural beauties, as of the variety of animal and vegetable productions with which it abounds; but the Turks, by shutting the Bosphorus against the nations of Europe, have completely annihilated the commerce of the Crinea and of the Black Sea. The southern declivities of the mountains are covered with various trees, all of which grow to an extraordinary size. The flowers blow here in February; and the valleys, which are open to the south, are adorned with groves of olive and fig-trees. Oriental lotus (*Celtis orientalis*, European lotus) *Diospyrus lotus*, the ash, (*Fraxinus rotundifolia*, in Russian *olcha*), *Pistacia vera*, *Rhus coriaria*, *Rhus cotinus*, *Colutea arborescens*, *Cistus salvifolius*, *Coronilla emerus*, which blossoms twice a year; and the *Arbutus andrachne*; which furnishes subsistence to a considerable portion of the inhabitants in many parts of the East, although it grows on the naked rock.

There is a manufactory of Morocco leather in Carasubasar. The Morocco leather is made of goat's skin, and is prepared in the following manner: The raw hides are soaked for twenty-four hours in cold water, and the fleshy parts are afterwards scraped off them with iron scrapers, called *Ureli*. They are then left ten days in lime-water, to loosen the hair, which is completely rubbed off; and they are then laid in cold water for fifteen days, and trodden under foot at stated intervals. After this operation, they are rubbed over with dogs' dung, in order to produce an acid fermentation; and, after being once more scraped and pressed, they are moistened in a cold infusion of wheat-bran, and laid in a liquor made by boiling twenty-eight pounds of honey with five pails of water, and cooled to the temperature of new milk. They are then pressed in a vat, which has a hole at the bottom, to let out the moisture. Lastly, after being drenched for some time in a weak solution of salt and water, (one pound of salt to five pails of water) they are ready for the dye.

In order to dye red morocco, a pound of powdered cochineal is mixed with a decoction of the root of southernwood (*artemisia abrotanum*), and after adding five or six drachms of alum, boiled for about half an hour. The liquor is then poured over the leather; which is afterwards filled with the feet in a weak infusion of oak-leaves, until it is become: at length it is rinsed in cold water, rubbed over with olive oil, and calendered under wooden cylinders.

A yellow colour is communicated to the leather, merely with a still stronger decoction of the *artemisia*, 20lb. to 15 pails of water, adding gradually 2lb. or three powdered alum.

What Mrs. Guthrie says of the manners of the inhabitants of this country, is perfectly correct. The Crimea Tatars are extremely addicted to jealousy, but that does not prevent their wives from being gallant—"Tout comme chez nous." However, a Tatar beauty does not answer the idea, which we form of the Graces.

On the point of land on which Iphigenia, the daughter of Agamemnon, ministered as priestess of the temple of Diana, there are some broken marble columns, capitals, and other ornaments, and a beautiful block of marble, adorned with bas-reliefs of the most exquisite workmanship: this block formed part of an altar, and has still a large bronze ring fastened in it, to which the victims to be sacrificed were bound. These ruins lie neglected and exposed to the inclemency of the weather.

The daily food of the peasants in Moldavia and Bessarabia, consists of a dish made of meal mixed with butter, fat, or milk, which is called Mammaliga. Such of them as are at their ease, make this dish more palatable by mixing balls of boiled millet with it, and it is then called Malay. They have a kind of vegetable soup, which is called poreryack. The bread which the peasants and Tatars eat is made of barley, which, in Moldavian, is called kyta, and, in the language of the Tatars, arpa-emeck.

They are extremely fond of raw eggs and pumpkins. They observe their fasts with the greatest strictness, and never eat meat under any pretence on Mondays, Wednesdays, or Saturdays. Their usual drink is a mixture of millet-meal and water, which is left for some time to ferment till acidulated, and called braga. Few of the Tatars, or Moldavians, can either read or write; the latter have a number of manuscripts written in Slavonian characters, which their priests make use of in the performance of divine service. Some few of these priests have studied in the schools at Yassy and Kischenan. There is a loom for weaving linen in every peasant's house in Bessarabia and Moldavia; and, whilst the peasant is at work in the fields, his wife stays at home and weaves either linen, or a kind of net-work, which is made use of for veils; which are called namitka, probably from the Slavonian word nametat, which means to throw over, as they are carelessly thrown over the head, and the ends are tied behind the back. The women also weave a kind of coloured stuff which, is made use of for gowns.

In Moldavia, bees and pigs pay the same tax; each pig and each bee-hive is liable to a duty of four paras and a half, or six copecks and a half. Each pogan (or portion of land twenty-four fathoms square) which is sowed with tobacco, pays the tiutiarick, that is twenty-four paras; and each barrel of wine

pays a para. In the year 1789, the duty on pigs and bees amounted to about 43,000 rubels.

The Moldavians in Bessarabia have a singular remedy for intermittent fevers, of which I have, on several occasions, witnessed the success. They boil a certain quantity of sheeps' dung in milk, and, after straining the mixture through a sieve, give it to the patient to drink.

There is a great number of gardens and orchards in Bessarabia, which, however, are not laid out either with taste or judgment. Cucumbers grow here to an immense size, and are called, in Moldavian, pepely. Melons and asparagus grow wild in the open fields; the latter is perfectly green, even to the root, and has rather a bitter taste. Turkish wheat is grown in all parts of this country, and is roasted and made use of as a substitute for coffee. The farmers spoil their tobacco by stripping off the leaves too soon. There are three kinds of grapes here, the first is long and white, the second round and purple, and the third is small but extremely sweet, and is called kishmis by the natives. The wine, which is made from all the three sorts, is of a very inferior quality.

There are great numbers of tarantulae here, which are of the species called *aranea tarantula*. This insect is a kind of spider, with a great number of feet, and a kind of greyish dust on the back. It feeds on the *artemesia alba*, which grows here in great abundance, and it buries itself in holes in the ground in the neighbourhood of this plant. Its sting is by no means poisonous. I once saw one of an extraordinary size, which I struck at with my whip, but only hit one of its legs; my servant held out a stick to it, which it grasped with its legs with such tenacity, that it suffered itself to be killed sooner than loose its hold.

The Dniester, or Neister, is 121 fathoms wide at Dubossar. This river is called Turla by the Turks, which name it derives from a chain of mountains in Hungary, whence it springs. It is rapid; its bed is muddy, and its waters are of a yellowish colour, and frequently covered with foam. It was antiently called Tyrus; Marcus Aurelius encamped his army for some time on its banks, near Kamenetz, where remains of his camp are still visible.

That beautiful tree, which the Russians call Rai Derewa, and which likewise is a native of Siberia, is also to be met with in the neighbourhood of Dubossar. It is perfectly straight, and grows to an astonishing height: its branches always turn upwards, and its leaves are long, narrow, and indented at the edges. Its wood is extremely brittle, and it is said to bear a white flower:

but I have not seen it in blossom. No tree of any other kind can grow near it; but it is so easily propagated, that it is sufficient to stick a branch of it in the earth. It is held sacred by the Tatars; and having at the desire of one of them, once desisted from my intention of cutting off a branch of it, he made me a present of a small pot of honey. A figure of this tree is generally carved on the tomb-stones of the Moldavians, at the foot of the deceased.

Clumps of sloe-trees (*Prunus spinosa*, in Russian tern, and in Moldavian parumbrely) grow in all the vallies. A liquor is extracted from it in Russia, which is called ternovi-kvas, and which, if frequently drank, causes dangerous obstructions. The fruit is frequently dried and boiled to a jelly, and is preserved in this state to make a kind of drink, which tastes somewhat like lemonade. The cornel tree (in Russian derion, in Moldavian koarno, and in the Tatar dialect kysil) grows here in great abundance. Its bark is of a reddish brown, its leaves dark green, and it bears such a number of blossoms, that the whole tree appears to be covered with a continuous yellow veil. The fruit resembles the olive when it is preserved in vinegar.

Woodbine is the most favourite ornament of the gardens here, and to present a branch of it in blossom to a female, is considered a declaration of love. A kind of decoction is made of the *eyngum planum*, which is found to be productive of some benefit in the venereal disease.

The asparagus officinalis (in Russian perekatipole, in Moldavian umbrajepule) grows wild here in immense beds of five or six versts in length. It is somewhat bitter, but can be eaten to the root. In the wild state it is very thin, but when transplanted it grows thicker in two years than that which is raised in hotbeds in other countries. The pigs are fed here with thorn-apples, which are in great abundance. Whole fields are covered with wild sage, which, in Russian, is called assilky. I saw it at the time of the year when it shuts up its leaves, so that they form a kind of hall, in which small insects lay their eggs. The Turks cut off these halls and make a preserve of them, and of the eggs contained in them, which is agreeable to the taste.

The language of the Moldavians of this country, and of the Bessarabian inhabitants of the stepps, or plains, contains many Italian words and expressions, viz. Venite a cas! (Come home!) Vacca (a cow), Valle (a vale), &c. It is well known, that when the Italians, particularly the Genoese, were driven from Akerman, they established themselves in Soroka. A number of Latin verbs, such as *sapere*, *amo*, &c. &c. prove that the language of the Roman colonists is not wholly forgotten.

Opposite Dubossar, on the other side of the Dniester, the road leading to Orgey, which is the first Moldavian town, passes through a magnificent forest of birch and elm trees. The *iris flammula Jovis*, is one of the plants which are found here in great abundance.

Kischenau, on the Bug, is built on three hills, and must have been very populous formerly, as the ruins of more than a thousand houses, with large vaulted cellars, are still visible on the right bank of the river. The city is divided into three districts, in each of which there is a church; the largest of these churches has a cupola, and a figure of St. George is painted in fresco over the principal entry. There was an academy here formerly, in which the young Moldavians, and particularly those who were intended for the church, studied. There are still lectures given here in theology, which are remarkable only for their absurdity. I attended one of these lectures, at which a monk, who styled himself professor, explained the conversion of St. Paul, who, he said, underwent not only a moral but physical change; and, from being an elderly man, became a vigorous youth. The professor then entered into a long and ridiculous dissertation on the hardships which this vigorous youth underwent.

There is a large well-built synagogue in Kischenau, in which I saw the death of the high priest Gedalia, which occurred 1500 years ago, bewailed with as much vociferous sorrow, and with as copious floods of tears, as if he had been dead but a few hours. The frogs, which are more abundant and more noisy here than in any other part of Europe, rendered the lamentations of the Jews still more impressive.

There are three custom-houses in Moldavia: the first in Kischenau, the second in Mogilew, and the third in Soroka. The principal receiver of the customs is called in the Moldavian language, Wamesch. During the reign of the Hospodar Gregory Dgyka the Second, the customs were not lucrative; but the Hospodar Ypsylanti built a number of subordinate custom-houses, and raised the duties to such a degree, that they brought in about 20,000 pounds sterling annually. Foreign manufactures pay but three per cent. The boyars, or nobility, are not liable to any duties, although some of them are in trade.

Three magnificent fountains, with marble basins, furnish Kischenau with abundance of water. This luxury, together with public and private baths, is to be met with in all Turkish and Moldavian cities; as the religion of the one, and the customs of the other, render frequent ablutions necessary.

The village of Molkosch, which was burnt in the last war CAMPENHAUSEN.]

between the Russians and Turks, is thirty versts distant from Kischenau.

Kauschan is in $47^{\circ} 45'$ of longitude, and $47^{\circ} 15'$ of latitude, and is situated on the river Bottna. A memorable battle was fought near this city, on the 13th of September 1789, between the Turks and Russians, after the latter had made themselves masters of the village of Molkosch.

In former times, Kauschan was the capital of the possessions in Bessarabia, which belonged to the Chan of Tatory. Petty Guiray was the founder of the city, which, together with the surrounding country, brought him in eighty purses per annum, or about 4000*l.* reckoning the purse at 50*l.* The great number of inhabitants, the internal commerce, and the abundance of provisions of all kinds, which were brought here, gave the city the name of Kauschan, which means a *Place of Assemblage*. It formerly enjoyed a number of privileges; the principal of which was, that the Chan was obliged to reside there during the first three months of his reign. At the expiration of the three months, he was obliged to go to Perekop; and if he met there the deputies of the tribes of Scherin and Manlupi, whose duty it was to receive him, he continued his journey as far as Backtichisnai. If the deputies were absent, it was a sign that the choice of the Sultan had not the approbation of the people, and the Chan immediately returned to Kauschan to implore the protection of the Porte, which was generally accorded to him. The Chan was obliged to chuse his wife from amongst the clan of Scherin.

Kauschan is at present in a very reduced state; and is principally inhabited by Jews, and persons of a wretched appearance; however, the coffee-houses and bazars, which are to be seen in the city, prove that Oriental luxury once existed here in all its splendour. The streets are narrow and filthy; and the most disgusting objects, such as dead cats and dogs, constantly offend the eye. Some of the streets are planked, and all have a distinct walk for foot passengers. A coffee-house in Moldavia resembles the Turkish coffee-houses in every particular. It is a large square-room, at the end of which there is a fire-place for boiling the coffee. There is a divan, or sofa, along two sides of the room, which is divided into several compartments, by a railing, about two feet high. The men sit on this divan with their legs turned under them, in the Turkish manner, and it is seldom that they enter into an animated conversation. They drink their coffee without either milk or sugar, and shake it up before they drink it, in order that the dregs may not be lost. Each person brings his tobacco along with him. A pouch for

smoking tobacco, which each person has hanging at his side, and a handsome embroidered handkerchief, are indispensable articles to a well-dressed Moldavian. There are the ruins of a large Armenian monastery in Kauschan, which was founded in the year 1709, by a rich merchant of the name of Malachaim, and was built by an architect, called Astwasatur. The garden of the monastery is filled with tombs, each of which is of the form of a parallelogram. At the four corners of the marble flag, which covers the grave, there are four small holes, into which a libation of water and wine is poured on the day of the interment. These tombs, as well as those which are outside the city, are of beautiful marble, of various colours; but, notwithstanding all my researches, I could not find, or hear of any marble-quarry in the neighbourhood of the town. The tomb of the above-mentioned architect is of white marble, ornamented on all sides with carved garlands and flowers, tolerably well executed. There is an inscription on it, of which the following is a literal translation:

“This is the grave of Astwasatur, the son of Sapor. His ashes repose here. The thread of his life was cut in the year of our Lord and Saviour, Jesus Christ 1722, which is 1170 years since the Armenians espoused the Christian faith. Go and pray.”

There are two Corinthian capitals of the most beautiful Parian marble, in the church of this monastery. They are of exquisite workmanship, and it is inconceivable by what accident they have come here; as the Armenians have no sculptors of any degree of eminence, and as no columns of a height proportioned to the size of these capitals could ever have stood in any part of the church.

There are a great many Armenian tombs in the burial-place of the Jews, which is, in my opinion, a proof that the Armenians here were of the sect of those of Mount Caucasus; as the latter had adopted many Jewish customs, such as circumcision, &c. &c. and consequently would not have any objection to be buried in the same cemetery with the Jews.

The Greek church is a round building, one half of which is under ground. The acts of some Saints, and the tortures which the martyrs underwent, are painted, in fresco, on a roseate ground, on the inside and outside of the walls. The choir is ornamented with a handsome marble altar, and baptismal font also of marble, with emblematic figures from the heathen mythology carved on them. The church has been pillaged and nearly ruined by the Turks.

The 'Turkish' mosque here is different from all the other

mosques which I have seen, as the minaret is connected with the body of the building. In all other towns in the Turkish empire, the minaret is a few paces distant from the mosque. A Mullah assured me, that on feast-days the mosque is adorned with as many lamps as there years of the Hegyra. All places of public worship, throughout the Turkish dominions, to whatever religion they may belong, are obliged to have a crescent erected on the roof and on the spire. I have even observed this on several churches in White Russia. The houses in Kauschan are built of an argillaceous clay mixed with straw. The roofs are covered with pan-tiles, but I have not seen a single house in this town built of brick.

The town is ornamented with a considerable number of handsome fountains with jets. To the disgrace of many more civilized states, such fountains and wells are found at every place in Turkey, in almost every street, and even on the public roads in considerable numbers; they are always built of stone, and provided with a bucket. The water in all the fountains here, except that near the mosque, is muddy, and impregnated with saltpetre and alkali. The town is surrounded with gardens, which contain vines, plums, poplars, and white elder, which continues in blossom until the month of October. A kind of preserve is made of the blossoms of the elder, mixed with garlick, pepper, ginger, and vinegar, which is called *baditschan*. The Turks are extremely fond of it; but I confess its flavour did not please me. There are granite quarries in the neighbourhood of Kauschan, of which the Turks make their tomb-stones; and in Bessarabia there is a considerable quantity of lapis ollaris, which however is made but little use of.

All the Moldavians who live here, and in the other towns of Bessarabia, pay a capitation-tax, of about five shillings yearly, from the fifteenth to their fiftieth year. This tribute is called *Salian*. Besides this, the Pacha, or Sangiack, receives the tytle of every kind of corn which is grown here; this is called *Bachra*.

Palanka, a miserable village with a kind of fortress, is about fifty verst, from Kauschan. It received its name from the Zaporogs, who give the name of Palanka to every place which is surrounded with a wall. Palanka was built by the Genoese, and was formerly a place of commerce, but it is now in such a ruined state, that it contains but sixty-three houses. There is a handsome mosque in the citadel. The fields round the town are covered with *Euphorbia* (wols-milk), which in Russian is called *Woltsphilock*. The Turks press out its milk in summer, leave it to agrie, and when it is dry, make use of it to heal wounds, I

also found here a considerable quantity of glass-work, the *Salicornia* of Linnæus. Woodcocks, partridges, and quails, are here in great abundance: hundreds of storks are heard screaming in all the old buildings, and I saw numbers of swallows here in the middle of the month of October. A small kind of muscle, one side of which is braided like a basket, is found in the Liman, or mouth of the Niester, which begins at a few versts from Cara-Ibrahim.

There is also a fish caught here, called by the Moldavians *Murene*, which is of an immense size, and has a long sharp head, underneath which are four large tufts of hair, which are at the distance of an inch from each other. It has two fins, but no scales; its taste is disagreeable, and excites nausea.

Between Palanka and Akerman, there is a kind of elevation, or mound, resembling a long dam, which has been raised by human hands. The highest part of this mound is five feet four inches high. The Moldavians call it *Camina Trajani*; and it is generally believed that it was raised during the reign of Trajan: for my part, I cannot imagine that this road, or whatever it may be called, was made by order of that emperor, who never was in this country. It is true, that at the time of Trajan, the Romans had colonies here, which were wholly neglected by Adrian. Marcus Aurelius passed by Palanka in his campaign against the Sarmatians. Maximinus was the only Roman emperor who continued for any time here; and if this be a Roman way, it must have been constructed by the colonists during his reign. But it appears more probable to me, that it was a dam raised by the Genoese against the overflowings of the Niester. The Genoese were in possession of the shores of the Black Sea in the twelfth century. The Venetians conquered them in the fourteenth century; but fifty years afterwards they again came under the yoke of their former masters. They were over-run in the fifteenth century by the Nogaiian Tatars, who have ever since retained possession of them. My opinion seems to be confirmed by the fact, that this dam is only observable in the lowest parts of the banks of the Niester, and of the lake which is connected with the sea. The dam between the rivers Sereth and Pruth, and between this latter river and the lake of Jalpack, also bears the name of *Camina Trajani*. The Liman of the Niester is here also called *Lakul Oviduli* by the Moldavians.

Akerman, which is situated in $48^{\circ} 23' 45''$ longitude, and $46^{\circ} 50' 32''$ latitude, was a Roman colony, and was anciently called *Alba Julia*, a name which the Moldavians have in some degree preserved, by calling it *Civita Alba*. When the Genoese conquered it, they gave it the name of *Monte Castro*; and the

Turks; on getting possession of it, called it *Akir-men*, which means white and cloudy; a name which it justly deserves, as it is frequently enveloped in thick fogs.

It was originally a colony of Milesians. Darius Hystaspis conquered it, and established a satrap in it, as Herodotus relates in his Fifth Book. The Greeks wrested it from the Persians in the year 482 before the birth of Christ. Those who were banished to this country gave it the name of *Abarman*, or the Land of Evil Destiny, as Cornelius Nepos relates in the Life of Histieus, who restored those unhappy victims to their country. The Greeks kept possession of Akerman, and the surrounding country, until the Romans conquered Asia Minor; at which time these latter subdued Akerman, and gave it the name of *Alba Julia*. Clement of Alexandria, and several other men of literary eminence, were banished hither by Domitian. The Goths made themselves masters of it in the fourth century, but the Romans succeeded in wresting it from them, and united it with Thrace. The Venetians got possession of it and all the seaport towns in this country in the thirteenth century, but were soon after driven out of it by the Genoese, from whom it was taken by the Tatars, who, in their turn, were overpowered and expelled from it by the Turks, who have ever since kept possession of it.

The city is not perceptible at any considerable distance, as it is built in a hollow; at the distance of three versts on the side of the Liman, it appears as if its four towers rose out of the water.

The city and suburbs are surrounded with an intrenchment of 2370 paces in circumference, which has four large entries, or gateways. On entering the principal of these, I saw a considerable number of Turkish graves, each of which is of an oblong form. Those of the men are distinguished by a turban, and those of the women by a flower resembling a lilly, which are engraved on the tomb-stones.

The suburbs are disgustfully filthy, but have here and there flag-ways for foot passengers.

The houses, which are all built of argillaceous earth, are very low, and are surrounded with such high walls, or hedges, that they can scarcely be seen from the street. The windows all look into the court-yards, and are near the ground. The walls which surround the houses have been suggested by Turkish jealousy.

The disgusting butchers' stalls, and the coffee-houses resembling those which I have described in my account of Kausehan, are the only buildings which face the street, and are not sur-

TURKISH MANNER OF BATHING.

rounded by walls. There are several baths in Akerman, two of which are reserved for people of distinction. The handsomest and most spacious of these is built of stone, and has no windows, but is lighted by a glass cupola, or skylight. In the baths which are intended for the use of the women, I saw several marble basins, in which they wash themselves after coming out of the large bath. Men are not allowed to approach these baths; but we had entered the town as conquerors, and *inter arma silent leges*. The walls are all ornamented with fresco paintings of flowers.

In the centre-room of the baths made use of by the men, there is a large tub, and six smaller ones, in the six surrounding niches. The Turks bathe in the following manner, as I had an opportunity of learning from my own observation: the person who wishes to bathe undresses in the antichamber, which is moderately heated, and is from thence led into a warmer room, where he waits for the bath-man, who wears a large glove covered with wool, or soft kind of hair, with which he rubs the body of the bather with gradually increasing violence, and make his joints crack. The bath-man then washes his body with luke-warm water, and laying him on a bed on the floor, bends his back backwards and forwards, then sits on the back of the persons who bathe, and slides down to his feet; and by incessantly rubbing his body, he excites an agreeable sensation which is impossible to describe. After this process, the bather is lapped up like a mummy in a large piece of linen, and is led into a warmer chamber, where his body is rubbed with fragrant oils. After this unction is over, he puts on a night-gown and slippers, and goes into another room, where he takes coffee, and sits until he is cool enough to return to the antichamber where he had left his cloaths. I once took a bath of this kind, and paid about eight shillings English for it.

Of all the mosques which are in this town, there are but two which are deserving of any notice. That in the city is built of stone, and has a high narrow tower a few steps distant from it, from the summit of which the Imam calls the true believers to prayer. This mosque is ornamented with two handsome lamps of silver gilt, which once belonged to a christian church. The mosque in the suburbs is built of wood, which may be considered a rarity in Turkey. The tower has a terrace at the top, instead of being pointed like the others. There are always handsome fountains near the mosques, and near that in the city there are two remarkable graves; the tomb-stones of which are carved with turbans and warlike trophies; but so great is the indifference of the Turks to every thing relative to history, that none of

them could inform me to whom these graves belonged. The incalculable numbers of graves which are in the suburbs, prove that this place must once have been very populous. Two of these are different from any graves which I have ever seen in the Turkish dominions : on the turban which is carved on one of the tomb-stones there are two cones, one of two feet, and the other of half a foot in length ; the other had also a turban carved on it, but instead of being of the colour of the stone, the ground was painted red in that part where the cloth of the turban is crossed over the forehead.

The Armenian church is a massive building, one half of which is under ground ; it is dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and the altar is ornamented, or rather disfigured, by an ill-carved statue of her. One of the many tomb-stones which surround the church is deserving of notice. It is of the most beautiful marble, and covers the grave of bishop Stepanos, by birth a Persian, and one of the twelve bishops who are under the inspection and controul of the archbishop of Erivan. This tomb-stone is adorned with all the insignia of the episcopal dignity, and the epitaph say, that this bishop had been in Jerusalem, and died in Akerman in the year 1784. Almost all the Armenians here are from Persia. On the anniversary of the death of their relations, they visit their tombs, pour wine into a hollow which is cut in the tomb-stone at the head of the deceased, repeat some words in a low tone of voice, and then drink out the wine which had been poured into the hole. They have three patriarchs, who reside in Jerusalem, Constantinople, and Erivan. The last of these is the principal, and is entitled Hugas Gathaitos, which means emperor. Gabrielos was the name of him who was elected in 1779. A considerable number of bishops are dependant on these three patriarchs.

Stephan, Hospodar of Wallachia, consecrated a catholic church to the Greek faith in the fifteenth century, although he had subjected himself to the dominion of the Turks. He ordered the arms of Wallachia, an ox's head, to be put on all the gates of Akerman, where they are still to be seen. The pavement of the church is of white marble ; on each square of which a star is carved. There are two altars in the church, at one of which mass is read in the Greek, and at the other in Servian and Moldavian language.

There are but thirty-five Greek families in the city, who pay nearly sixty pounds annually for the free exercise of their religion ; but when the Pachas are in want of money, they send a priest round the town in chains, accompanied by a Janissary, and oblige him to beg in this condition till the required sum is

collected. The castle is of a square form, and has four towers; the wall which surrounds the city is fifteen feet thick in some parts, and the moat or ditch is seven fathoms deep. On the side of the Liman there is a double wall, with towers at the distance of 120 feet from each other, but there is no ditch here. The two walls on this side of the town are covered with inscriptions in the Turkish, Armenian, and Moldavian languages. One of them was in Greek, but I was unable to decypher it; near it was an escutcheon in the form of a heart, on one side of which an inscription in another character was engraved.

Near one of the gates, I observed a large square stone, on which the head of an ox with short crooked horns was carved. Between the horns was a star, and under the neck of the ox was a shield, in one field of which were four beams and in the other three lillies.

In the first war against the Turks, the town held out sixteen days, and in the last only three days. The Pacha, who commanded in the town had been a goldsmith a year before, and had purchased his post.

There is a prodigious quantity of mulberries, love-apples, and delicious grapes in the gardens round the town, however no wine is made here. A kind of sweet wood grows here, which the Turks are fond of chewing. The *Tanacetum odoratum*, in Turkish, *Kedufé*; *Malva arborea*, in Turkish *Gulpatock*; lillies, &c. adorn these gardens. I saw immense numbers of snakes, in Moldavian *Scherpé*, which are of a grey colour, and have a red belly. I also observed great numbers of ants of the small red kind. The Liman abounds with sturgeons, carps of an extraordinary size, pikes, and a kind of fish which the Russians call *Taran*.

I shall say a few words relative to a visit which I paid to the Turkish commander in chief, who was a Pacha of three tails.

As soon as I was announced, I was led from the anti-chamber into a private room, in which I found the Pacha sitting with his deputy, in the Turkish manner, on a low sopha, which was covered with red satin. He made me a sign in a friendly manner, to sit down; which I did, but found it very inconvenient, as the sopha was but little elevated above the ground. As soon as I was seated he clapped twice with his hands, and a young Turk immediately appeared in an humble posture, and carrying a short stick under one arm, at the end of which were two crooked horns of silver, from which several little bells hung. The Pacha

said a few words to him; on which he left the room walking backwards until he got outside of the door. In a few minutes he returned, accompanied by another young man who was to serve as interpreter. This young man, as I afterwards learned, was a Spaniard by birth, and having been taken prisoner by the Turks in a voyage which he made up the Mediterranean, he thought proper to renounce his religion, in order to better his condition. As he had been for some time in a counting-house in Leghorn, he spoke Italian fluently, and it was in this language that the conversation was carried on. The Pacha enquired what rank my companion and I held in the army; but our interpreter had considerable difficulty in explaining our answer to him. He then demanded to know why I wore a blue uniform with red facings and silver embroidery, and my companion a green uniform with red and gold. He seemed pleased with my answer, and said that he thought it very judicious to use different uniforms, as by means of this, it was easy to distinguish such troops as belonged to the infantry or cavalry. He enquired if we had seen Constantinople; and on our answering in the negative, he told us that we had never seen any thing which could be compared to it in point of splendour. I said, I hoped to be there before long. He seemed to comprehend my meaning, and continued silent. On observing me take a pinch of snuff, he asked for my snuff-box, and emptied all the snuff into his own, which was a coarse wooden box; he then requested me to send him some pounds of the same kind of snuff. He clapped his hands a second time, but in a different manner from the former; and presently a servant entered with a silver tray, on which were a dozen silver cups, in as many silver baskets, instead of saucers; another followed with a silver coffee-pot, which he shook every time that he poured out the coffee; a third followed with a napkin, embroidered at the edges with gold and silk, hanging on his shoulder. These three servants were all dressed in jackets and pantaloons of different colours. The coffee was served without either sugar or milk. Another servant appeared, and handed a lighted pipe to the Pacha, after having put a small bit of aloes wood into it. His excellency smoked for about a minute, and handed the pipe to the Pim-Pacha, who did the same, and gave it to me. I followed his example, and gave it to my companion, who returned it to the Pacha. This ceremony was repeated several times. I asked the Italian how many tails the Pacha had, when the latter,

as soon as my question was explained to him, made a sign to me to look behind me; which I did, and observed in the corner of the room, a long cane with a golden ball at the end, from which three beautiful tufts of white horse-hair hung: this gave rise to several questions and answers relative to this symbol of honour, the result of which was, that no Pacha, not even the Grand Vizier, is allowed to have this badge of dignity with the three tails carried before him, so long as he is in the town which the Sultan inhabits. A stick with a gilded ball at the end of it, is the only mark of distinction which is allowed him on such occasions. The Sultan is the only person in the empire who has the privilege of wearing a turban with a black heron feather, which at his decease is always sent to Mecca. The military always receive either one or three tails, but never two, as this distinction is given exclusively to persons in civil departments, such as Cadi's, &c. The Pacha became at length communicative, and asked us from what part of Russia we came; and on our answering from Riga and Moscow, he repeated those names several times. He told us that he was a native of Georgia, that his brother was the sword-bearer and favourite of the Sultan, and that himself had often carried the Sultan in his arms. However, this did not prevent him from being strangled by order of the emperor six months afterwards. He had the character of being fond of drinking, and of having unnatural propensities. I was also told, that he had but three wives, all old women. As soon as we had drunk our coffee, the servant came and wiped our mouths with the embroidered napkin. After this a new scene commenced. A servant dressed like the three former, entered with a large silver tray, on which were at least twenty little plates, containing different kinds of preserves; a second followed him with a golden or gilded spoon, with which he put a portion of each of the preserves into our mouths, and a third was charged with the ceremony of wiping our lips. The preserves, particularly the unripe oranges, were extremely good. Our conversation continued, and as the Pacha heard that I was fond of horses, he ordered that I should be conducted to his stud on leaving the house. After some minutes had elapsed, another servant came into the room with some silver cups of lemon sherbet; and soon after another came in with a censer, with which he fumigated us from head to foot. This was the signal for the breaking up of the conference, for his excellency made us a sign with his hand to retire, after having requested me not to forget the snuff.

We went to see his stables, which were underground, and contained about thirty horses, none of which were valuable. Each horse was bound by a chain fastened round one of his fore legs. As we were on the point of taking our departure, his excellency sent each of us a piece of aloes-wood of about a finger's length.

The Pacha appeared to me to be about sixty years old. He wore a red velvet mantle, lined with fur; his waistcoat and girdle were of embroidered silk stuff, and his breeches and turban of red cloth.

The Pim Pacha wore a mantle of yellow satin lined with ermine, a blue silk waistcoat and breeches, and a turban of yellow cloth. He did not speak a word during the whole ceremony. Each person who came into the room left his slippers which he wore over his boots, at the door, and retired backwards with his body in an inclined posture, and his arms crossed over the breast.

The village of Dreusch is twenty wersts distant from Ackerman. Its extensive ruins prove that it was formerly a place of considerable importance. It is at present inhabited by sectaries, who call themselves Neckrassowtzy. Some travellers have erroneously considered them a tribe of Tartars. Their history is briefly as follows: Three Stanitz of Cossacks (each Stanitz consists of five hundred men) under the guidance of a leader called Neckrassovitz, separated from the Cossacks of the Don, and established themselves in the island of Taman, between Temnick and Copil. General Suwarrov exerted all his efforts to prevail on them to return, but in vain. They first fled to the Circassians of the Kuban; but meeting soon with some causes of discontent, they separated into two parties, one of which fixed itself in the neighbourhood of the city of Anapis, and the other joined the Tatars of the hordes of Edissan and Edissnel, under the governments of the Turks, and now inhabits this Bessarabian village; however it is probable that they will not continue long here, as they are too much accustomed to a wandering mode of life, to remain long in any one spot.

Bender, the capital of Bessarabia, is situated on the Neister. The residence of Charles XII. here after the battle of Pultava, has given this city a certain celebrity in history. It received its name from Bajazet the second, who on his death-bed commanded his successor, Selim the First, surnamed *Avus*, or the *Savage*, to build a fortress here; and concluded his exhortation with these words, "*Ben-Derim!*"

"I command thee." At least this is the etymology of it which was given me by the Pacha, the Cadi, and the Seraskier. The fortress is only remarkable for the immense ditch which surrounds it; for the fortifications are very injudiciously constructed. It surrendered in the last war, because the Pacha who commanded in the town, and the Seraskier who had the command of the camp outside the works, were at variance; and the Janissaries, who were mostly in trade, trembled for their rich shops. We found three hundred cannon in the place, of which fifty-one were of iron; we also found twenty-five mortars and three howitzers. The fortress was abundantly provided with powder, balls, rice, meal, &c. Amongst the cannon was one twelve pounder, which was a present from the city of Landau to the emperor Leopold the First. Near the mouth of it was a unicorn with the German words, "Antoni Uth het mik gegoten," Antony Uth cast me. Near the touch-hole was a crown and a linden tree, with the words, "Fusum est hoc tormentum bellicum tempore judicis Goldschmittii pro sue patriæ gloria et memoria 1646." I observed the arms of Venice on one of the mortars. There are two inscriptions on the inner wall of the castle, or Itsch Kalasy, old fortress, as it is called. One of them is effaced; with the exception of a few letters and the year of the Hegyra. The other is in the Arabian language, and is of the following import, "Built by order of the Stambulian Padischa Beyza-Devol, by the powerful Padischa Sultan Selim Hazy."

The Turkish emperors all call themselves Stambulian or Constantinopolitan, as may be seen on the lion-dollars, or Byrus, and on the double dollars.

Bender has two suburbs, twelve mosques, six inns or khans, and seven gates. The names of the gates are as follows: The Stambul Kapisy, or gate of Constantinople; the Tabany Kapisy, or tanners gate; the Varnitza Kapisy, or gate of Varna; the Su Kapisy, or water gate; the Ul Kapisy, the Orda Kapisy, and the Tasch Kapisy, or stone gate. Two of these gates have inscriptions, one of which I shall translate here; partly because it is a good specimen of the oriental style, and partly as it informs that the town of Tegin was not taken by treachery, as the Hungarian historians maintain, but by storm. The following is the literal translation:

"I, by the grace of the highest, the first of all emperors in the world, Sultan, born of God and of his prophet Muhamed, companion of the Lord, conqueror of the world and of the Weywod Peter, and of Bogdania, I, Solyman, seal-bearer

of the temple of the only God, I, I have wrested the fortress of Tegin and its garrison from the king of Germany; I have taken it by storm, in the presence of all the chiefs of my ever invincible army. And I have given orders to have the stones taken from the castle of Palanka, to build this wall and gate, and the fortress shall be named Ben-Derin. In the year of the Hegyra 965.

The people assemble in the principal mosque, which is called Muynkar-Dgammid, on Fridays only. This mosque may be considered a kind of cathedral, in which alone it is allowed to pray for the Sultan. The second mosque is called Dagestan-Metsched, and the third Selima Metsched; all the others are of little importance. The Armenians here consist of 150 families; their church is a miserable building. I saw a wedding of these people, which struck me, on account of its singularity. The relations of the bride and bridegroom walked in procession through the streets, the men separated from the women, and uttered loud and continued lamentations. They were preceded by two boys carrying flambeaus, and were followed by two others who were dressed in white and gold, and carried wax tapers; next came the bridegroom dressed in white, supported by two young men in the same dress. The bridegroom carried a stick ornamented with white ribbands in his hand, and was followed by the bride, who was veiled and completely covered with a large shawl or cloak of red silk. She was accompanied by two young girls and a number of women, all of whom uttered incessant lamentations. The priest, who walked a few steps before the bridegroom, raised his stick frequently and repeated the same words every five or six minutes in a loud tone of voice. The two troops walked so slowly, that their progress was scarcely perceptible.

The streets in Bender are extremely gloomy, narrow, and dirty. The filthiness which is peculiar to Turkish towns is almost incredible, and forms a singular contrast with the frequent ablutions which the Mahometan religion commands. Dead horses, oxen, dogs, &c. lie and rot in the streets, and are perhaps in a great degree productive of the plague, which so often ravages these countries.

The Inns, called by the Turks Khans or Khaans, are large square buildings, which somewhat resemble convents. The principal of them are two stories high. The windows look into a court yard, which is surrounded with a high wall. There is a great number of small chambers in these khans,

which have no communication with each other, and are entered from a long gallery or corridor. The travellers lodge in these, and foreign merchants here expose their merchandize for sale. They contain no furniture of any kind.

The Turkish houses are all lightly built, and are incapable of resisting the inclemency of the weather in a hard winter. They all have a passage which runs from one end of the house to the other, and on each side of which are the chambers, like cells in a convent. The walls of the chambers are neatly inlaid with various kinds of wood, and there are a number of small presses on cupboards, the doors of which are decorated with bright brass nails.

Near the entrance is a large pot, fastened in the wall, containing warm water for the Abdest or ablution prescribed by the *Jas*. There is also a niche or small closet in every room, in which the Turks wash themselves, and for which there are sewers to carry off the dirty water. A small elevation, called a *Dorra*, runs along the foot of the wall all round the room; it is painted and covered with carpeting, velvet, or gold, and is of the width of the proprietor. The room is filled with coarse divans of potter's clay, daubed over with dark-yellow paint. The windows, which are very wide in proportion to their height, are a few inches above the floor, and are covered with oiled paper. Glass windows are extremely rare; I have only seen them in the mosques, and in the house of one man of rank. The court of Petersburg frequently sends window-glass as a present to the Sultan. The panes of glass in the windows of the mosque of *Meymar Dammad* are but about three inches square.

The large *Metsched*, which is the handsomest edifice in *Constantinople*, is a square building of fifty-eight paces. There is a minaret over the principal entry, on which a verse of the *Koran* is written in letters of gold. In a niche, opposite the door, is a metal basin suspended from a chain, which the Turks call *Schadrivan*. To the left of this there is a kind of recess, in which there is a representation of the *Kaaba*, and of the grave of Mahomet; however, these were removed on the approach of the Russian troops. There is a small pulpit to the right of the *Schadrivan*, which resembles a confessional, or a centry box, in which the *Iman* stands, who is appointed to read the *Koran*. Ten steps, covered with red cloth, lead up to it. The floor of the *Metsched* is covered with rich carpeting; and there are divans all round the walls. In the middle of the building is a cupola, ornamented with a star of old wood, and with verses of the *Koran* in letters of gold. From the centre of the star, a brass

lustre, called Scherfé, Haugs; on the branches of which are several hundred glass lamps of different colours, which are never lighted but at the feast of the Beyram; and, on these occasions, it is usual for every person who frequents the mosque to pay a few parabs. Several ostrich eggs, and artificial flowers of tinsel or gold-leaf, are suspended over the Scherfé. A prayer against the plague is written on the wall, near the pulpit; and on one side of this prayer is a painted representation of the sabre of Ali. The Turks have no other colours in their fresco paintings but blue, green, and yellow. I saw a large hall here, one side of which was covered with a painting of a tree; and on the other side was something which was meant to represent a blue ship.

The minarets are lofty, narrow, and pointed at top. They are generally built of stone, and stand a few paces distant from the mosque, I have seen but one exception to this, which I have already mentioned. In the interior, they have a small spiral staircase which runs up to the highest point of the building. There is a gallery on the outside, from which the Imán calls to prayer, or announces a death; for this latter service he receives a dollar, of about four shillings value. The two galleries of the principal mosque in Bender are built with some taste, and the intervals are ornamented with blue glass, which produces a good effect when the sun shines. The Imáns derive their emoluments from charity, from what they receive from the public for the performance of their functions as priests, and from the schools in which they teach. Each scholar is obliged to pay two parabs weekly. Each Mussulman is obliged, by law, to contribute a portion of every thing that he possesses to the Metsched, at the feasts of the great and little Beyram. The priests receive a fixed sum for every burial (Nikia), circumcision (Sikunnet), and marriage (Masut). When a rich Turk dies, ten or twelve poor people are employed to wash his body, during which time the Imán reads prayers over him. When a female child is born, no other ceremony is observed by the Imán than to give her a name, and to mutter the prayer A'lla-Hébkér in her ear.

The doors of the houses in Turkish towns are ornamented in a singular manner: they have generally three or four locks of tin-plate, and are sometimes wholly covered therewith. Those who cannot go to this expence, drive into them as many brass-headed nails as possible.

The indifference, or rather contempt, of the Turks for

every thing which relates to other nations is so great, that they pay no attention to events which take place under their eyes. They never heard of Charles the Twelfth; and the miserable ruins of the house which he inhabited here, and of his intrenchment at Varnitza, are the only memorials of a monarch, who for several years filled the Russian empire with dismay, and excited the admiration of Europe. Two small eminences cover the remains of Colonel Muller and Baron Stein, who served in the army which was commanded by Count Panin, and fell in the first siege of Bender, when the town was taken by storm.

The Turks have a kind of floral language, if I may be allowed this expression: that is, each flower, each tree, each plant, has a particular meaning; and a nosegay is frequently an expressive, and, as it were, circumstantial declaration of love, which at once extols the beauty and good qualities of the fair, and expresses the passion of the lover. I have picked up the following imperfect glossary by mere chance; for it is a Herculean labour to obtain a satisfactory explanation from a Turk on any one subject. The cypress means melancholy; the oak, tranquillity; lavender is expressive of assiduity, and desire to obtain something; white thorn means kisses; rosemary, fidelity; balsam, ardent love; and the rose, beauty. But it is the appropriate combination of these which constitutes the secret. I should not have supposed that the Turks had any language expressive of gallantry, had I not obtained the most satisfactory conviction of it.

It was impossible to obtain the smallest information of any kind from the Turks whom we made prisoners, as they were all either extremely ignorant, or too proud and obstinate to converse with their conquerors.

I had rendered some services to an Imam who had been in Mecca; but I never could prevail on him to shew me the picture of the Kaaba, which he carried on his breast, or to give me the smallest information relative to the customs of his countrymen. I once spoke with a distinguished Cadi on the subject of Mahomet and the Koran; but he cut short the conversation by rising from his seat, and saying, God is omnipotent, gracious, and omnipresent; he has created all things; but it is not his will that all men should serve him in the same manner; for if they did, he could not distinguish between fools and rational beings. He obstinately refused to listen to my answer to this singular position.

Ignorance and indolence render the Turks incapable of

every kind of serious or useful occupation, and they stand precisely on the same point of civilization at which they were when they first made their appearance in Europe.

Some of our officers spoke once to an Aga relative to some events in the Turkish history, with which they were well acquainted; his astonishment was unbounded; and he observed, with a ludicrous earnestness, "You, who know every thing that is going forward in our empire, may, perhaps, be able to tell me who has stolen my horse."

The Turks appear to possess two souls; one of which animates the nation, and the other each individual. They are by no means deficient in understanding, but they studiously avoid every thing which would be likely to extend the sphere of their ideas.

If a Turk be tête-à-tête with a foreigner, he is communicative; but the moment a third person comes up, he becomes speechless. This peculiarity in their character is probably occasioned by the despotism of their government. They are naturally proud, disgustingly vain, and have the greatest contempt for all those who are not of their religion; but as there are few national defects of character, which are not accompanied with, and even productive of, or produced by, some national good quality, so this superciliousness, and good opinion which they entertain of themselves, impart a decided character to their patriotism, which, if tempered and directed by a judicious government, would be productive of the greatest advantage to the nation.

They possess an uncommon share of personal bravery, but this is rather animal courage than the suggestion of honour, the moment they are defeated they are incapable of being rallied. They are generous and benevolent, when the first impulse of their feelings is not counteracted by fanaticism, but in their minds the most sacred duties of humanity yield to the influence of bigotry and prejudice. Their greatest happiness seems to consist in getting money, and they consider all means justifiable which are likely to enable them to attain to this desired end; but with such examples of rapacity and injustice as are set them by their government, it is not extraordinary that their ideas of morality are vague and incorrect, and that they willingly sacrifice integrity to the suggestions of self-interest.

If their armies were organized according to the principles of European tactics, they would be the most formidable in the world; but in their present state they can be considered in no other light than as unwieldy mobs, which are easily

dispersed, and can never be victorious but by their superiority of numbers, and even then their successes can only be purchased by an immense effusion of blood.

I shall mention two anecdotes, which will serve to give a tolerably just idea of the character of the Turks. A Turk had attached himself to a staff officer of our army, for whom he seemed to have the greatest friendship. He visited him daily, and when the officer was asleep, he sat down on the ground at his bed side, and frequently waited several hours until he awoke.

One day he brought an Arabian manuscript, which he did not himself understand, and for which he demanded a ducat. The officer willingly gave him the price which he asked, on which he retired, but came back two days afterwards and insisted on having another ducat. The officer refused him politely at first, but as he became insolent and noisy he was obliged to turn him out of doors, after having given him several blows with his stick. The Turk returned the following morning as usual, and continued his visits as if nothing had happened. And this was an Imam!

Another Turk brought a sample of gunpowder, which was of a very bad quality, and as the interpreter was not present, he laid it on the ground and retired. In about an hour he returned and demanded a dollar for his gunpowder, but as we laughed at him, he took it up in a rage, and said, "You shall not have a grain of gunpowder that has been made by a Musselman, and you know yourselves that it is the best in the world."

Nothing is more difficult than to convince a Turk, that he is in the wrong, or that he is a coward—even when he is taken in the act of flying, he has always an excuse for his conduct. The laws of the Turks forbid them the use of all strong liquors, but that does not prevent them from drinking wine in private; and they drink brandy, which they call Baky, publicly, as they say, that it has been purified by fire. This mode of palliating what is held as a crime in public estimation may be considered ridiculous, and even unprincipled; but it surely is not more so than the numerous evasions of law to which the subjects of the most patriotic and virtuous states of Europe have recourse. Mahomet has allowed them the use of Muscadine wine, when they are in ill health; and there are Greek inn-keepers to be found in all the Turkish towns, who do a considerable deal of business, and are visited by Turks of the first rank in the state. They also violate, without scruple, the laws of

the Koran, with respect to eating pork, and fish with scales; and I once indulged in a hope that these numerous deviations from the laws and prejudices of their country, would, in time, lead them to the adoption of some useful institutions of foreign countries; but a more intimate acquaintance with them has taught me, that, with a perversity which, I fear, is natural to mankind, they pertinaciously attach themselves to such prejudices of their country as are destructive of public welfare, and adopt only those customs of foreigners which are most calculated to flatter their passions or gratify licentious desires.

However, I believe, that under such a government as the Turkish, whose only aim seems to be to perpetuate ignorance, to weaken or pervert all the energies of the mind, and to plunge the subjects into a state of political degradation, no people in Europe would manifest a greater number of estimable qualities than the Turks.

When they wish to indulge in a debauch they hire a room, which is generally under ground, in one of the above-mentioned Greek inns, and assemble after sun-set. They begin the repast by eating smoked or salt meat, or fish, after which supper is served, and after supper they sit for several hours drinking various kinds of wine. They are certain of not being betrayed by their host, as his income, and even his existence depend on his silence. They prefer Dantzick malt-spirit to all other liquors, and when they are reproached for their drunkenness, they answer, "Sultan Mustapha the second, surnamed Beckris, the drunkard, did so, and he was the successor of the prophet!"

The Tatars are much more civilized than the Turks, and have manners and customs wholly different from theirs. Their principal men and their Mullahs are also better informed than the Pachas, Kadis, and Imans. I shall here describe a visit which I made to the Chan. His tent, which was covered with a kind of woollen stuff, was very spacious, and at one end of it was a green curtain, which formed a species of alcove. The Chan and all the company sat on saddles, which were laid on the ground, and were covered with pieces of cloth. It was about dinner time when I called on him, and after the usual compliments, a Mullah entered and repeated some prayers. As soon as he had concluded, the guests were presented with large cups filled with a kind of fermented liquor, made from mare's milk, which somewhat resembled malt-spirit. But before we drank the Mullah took the flask in his hand, drew up the curtain,

and poured out some of the liquor into each of the cups which stood before some idols which were behind the curtain. These images were twelve in number, were coarsely carved in wood, and had grotesque faces. After the libation was performed the curtain was let down, and dinner was served on small wooden trays. The repast consisted of rice mixed with raisins, poultry, fish, which was nearly raw, and the leg of a foal roasted, which I found very tender and savoury. There was also a kind of pastry served, which I could not eat much of, as it tasted of rancid fat. Our drink, during dinner, was water and a kind of mead, which was weak and extremely sweet. As soon as dinner was over tea was handed round, which, as it was boiled in the water, was very bitter. We had our choice to drink with it either mare's or camel's milk. I tried both, and found the latter disgustingly fat. The Chan did not speak ten words during the whole time of dinner, but devoured with the voracity of a cannibal. His principal general, however, was communicative, made several enquiries relative to our manners and customs, and was of opinion that the law which limited us to one wife was tyrannical and unjust. He even made some sarcastic observations on our moderation in this respect. Towards evening we were entertained with horse-races, shooting with bows and arrows, throwing of lances, and other gymnastic exercises. The pipe passed round as quickly as the disgusting beverage, and the Chan seemed to have got a sufficient doze. I afterwards learned that this was a *feast day* of the family of Guirey.

I saw some Tatar women, all of whom were extremely ugly. The men mostly wore white pantaloons and short jerkins, and the breast bare. They were extremely sunburned, and had all a nervous well-proportioned form, black eyes and hair, and were wonderfully expert in their military evolutions and exercises. This cast or tribe seemed to have no established religion, but to have adopted partly heathen and partly mahometan rites. The commander of the forces told me, that the Chan could easily send 50,000 cavalry into the field; however, I have my doubts of this. The camp which I saw, consisted of about 6000 cavalry.

There is an incredible number of tanners in Bender, some smiths, three paper manufacturers, and one watch-maker, who did not know much of his business. The paper here is made of cotton and smoothed with glass. The ink is made of the bark of the alder. The smiths are the most expert of all the artificers here, and it is not uncommon for them to

beat out a horse shoe into a sabre blade. They make use of alum for inlaying of gold, silver, &c. An old Turk, who appeared to me to be fully deserving of credit, informed me that the celebrated blades of Damascus were manufactured in the following manner:

The iron is first cut as small as possible, then mixed with pigeons dung, and put into an earthen pot, where it is left for some time, after which it is taken out, melted, and manufactured into blades.

The Turkish soap contains a considerable portion of lime. The best kind is made of the lees of olive oil. The manufactory of saltpetre is scarcely worthy of notice. Opium is called *Ambion* by the Turks. Each garrison, each detachment, has a manufacturer of opium attached to it, who is paid by the Sultan.

I made an experiment with opium on myself; however, it did not produce that effect on me which it does on the Turks, although I swallowed a tolerably large dose of it. It is become so necessary to the Turks, that many of them take a considerable portion of it every day. At first they appear sleepy and melancholy, but they become animated by degrees, and at last indulge in the most extravagant gaiety; but if they take too strong a dose, their rage becomes ungovernable.

The largest portion of opium, which a Turk is capable of taking at a time, is about the size of a filbert. As the common people are not able to purchase this luxury, they make use of the grains of white poppy mixed with a vegetable which is called *Uyus Erlick*. The description of this plant was so vague and unsatisfactory, that I was not able to ascertain its name. I was told that it bears yellow flowers, and grows chiefly against walls. Perhaps it is the *Chelidonium magnum*.

The science of medicine is wholly unknown in Turkey, and its place is supplied by prayers, amulets, and a few general remedies, such as pills for all kinds of diseases. The physicians are chiefly Jews and Jewesses.

One of these quacks pretended that he had studied in Berlin and Königsberg, and that he spoke Latin fluently. I therefore addressed him in that language, but I found that what he called Latin was nothing more than a few words picked up by chance, and the termination "*us*," which he gave to words of the dialect of the country; for instance, he said with doctrinal gravity, "*Syropus violarius est bonus pro stomachus*." Still he was looked up to by the inhabitants as a

prodigy of learning. The venereal disease rages with the most destructive violence in Turkey; the Turks call it Frenk Yafussu, and know of no other mode of treating it, but that of shutting up the patient in a warm room, and giving him sudorifics. I went into an apothecaries shop in Bender, which belonged to the above-mentioned Jewish doctor, who prided himself so much on his knowledge of the Latin language, and the only medicines which I found in it were Peruvian bark, syrup of violets, and about a dozen large boxes of ready-made pills, which he sold, in my presence, to persons afflicted with diseases of the most opposite nature. I could not prevail on him to make me acquainted with the composition; but on perceiving several large packets of red sticking plaister spread on linen, I requested him to give me the receipt, which I obtained with some difficulty for a dollar; it was as follows: Wax, in Turkish Balmun; the yolk of an egg, in Turkish Yumurtta-Sary; pine-resin in Turkish Tschum-Sakys; Landanum, in Turkish Dara-Sakys; and mutton suet, in Turkish Koin-Yahe. Each Turkish soldier is provided with a certain quantity of this plaister wrapped round his sabre, in case of necessity.

The Turks are so ignorant in the commonest branches of natural history, that they have not even names for many of the plants, which they are constantly in the habit of seeing.

Two kinds of barley grow in the environs of Bender; black barley, which comes originally from Mecca, and is called by the Turks Su-Arpa, and common yellow barley, which they call Thypla-Arpa. Long-eared wheat, and Albanian wheat are planted here and there. They are of a peculiar sort. *Triticum altissimum Albanense, seu triticum spica crassa longissima, foliis vaginatis, longioribus et latioribus communes, et seminibus longissimis, lutescente colore.*

Ismail, or Ismit, which the Turks call Ismit Orda Källessy, (Ismi, the field-fortification) was formerly one of the largest towns in Bessarabia. Its fortifications are five versts in circumference; they run along the Danube, which is here 280 fathoms wide, to the distance of two versts, and extend in the opposite direction as far as the Bulgarian shore, which comprises a space of 237 fathoms. The situation of the town, particularly on the side of the river, is extremely beautiful. There are seventeen mosques here, the most magnificent of which was built by the merchants who trade to the interior of Asia. It is a rotunda, and has a cupola covered with grey marble. The palace of the Pacha, and the khan or inn, which the Asiatic merchants frequent, were extensive buildings. The fortress was built under the di-

rection of a German of the name of Richter; it has five bastions, but the ravelin has never been completed. The Armenians and Greeks have a church and monastery here, in the latter of which Baron Weisenstein, who was one of the most distinguished officers in the Russian service, is buried. The useless obstinacy of the Pacha, who attempted to defend the fortress, even after all his ammunition was consumed, forced us in the year 1789, under Suwarrov, to take it by storm, and on this occasion this beautiful city was reduced to ashes.

The length of Bessarabia from Staraya Gangura, where the Botniza empties itself into the Botna is 16 versts, and its breadth from Ackerman to Gretscheny is about 170 versts. The neighbouring country abounds in fertile meadows and running springs. The lake of Yalpuch contains an immense quantity of excellent fish of every kind. The soil is extremely fertile, with the exception of the stepp or plain of Otschakov, and a tract of land on the banks of the Danube. There are some salt water lakes in the neighbourhood of Tatar Bonnar, on the surface of which the *sal marinum* is formed by the heat of the sun. The revenue which this salt produced, belonged formerly to the Chan of the Crimea, but devolved to the Pacha of Ismael, when that country was conquered by the Russians.

Bessarabia is separated from Moldavia by a chain of mountains. The former is a Sandgiack or government. Bender is the residence of the principal Sandgiack, who has a number of provincial governors subordinate to him; his yearly revenue as governor amounts to rather more than three thousand pounds sterling; however, he has various means of increasing it.

I have now where seen so many lizards as here; one species of them is very beautiful, it is of a dark-brown colour, with white stripes on the back, and the intervals between these stripes are covered with brown spots with black edges. The grass grows here to the height of seven or eight feet. The *Genista tinetoria*, the *Reseda luteola*, and the *Anchusa officinalis* grow promiscuously with the *Bryonia alba*, the *Tanacetum*, the *Hedysarum onobrychis*, the *Astragalus*, and various other useful plants. The blossoms here have all a deeper colour than in other countries, for instance, the *Tanacetum* is of a deep orange colour, and the *Antirrhinum linaria* is of the most beautiful yellow. Large tracts of land are covered with hemp and flax, which grow wild. That part of the province which borders on Moldavia contains but a single village, which is

situated on the banks of the lake of Yapul ; the rest is all a desert stepp. The country on the banks of the Neister is tolerably well cultivated, and some parts of it are covered with orchards. The plums of Akerman, a kind of mirabell, called in Turkish dzeanmeryek, and are of an excellent quality ; and the apricots of Ismail are better flavoured than those of France or Italy. The fields are covered with wild fowl of all kinds. Ismail and Kilia are the warmest aspects in the whole province, and the trees grow here to an extraordinary size, and have an uncommonly abundant foliage. The peaches of Babahda, which is forty versts from Ismail, are considered the largest and best in Europe. All the gardens abound in melons, apricots, peaches, plums, pears, apples, medlars, cucumbers, beans, peas, lettuce, onions, &c. of the best quality.

Persian pepper, garlick, and salt, are the only seasoning known to the inhabitants.

The province of Bessarabia was never wholly conquered by Trajan, as some historians maintain, although he subdued Dacia. The Romans had but a single colony here, which was called *Coelia*, at present Kilia. Adrian abandoned Dacia, and transplanted the colonies to another country ; he even destroyed the bridge across the Danube ; but the abutments of it are still visible at low water.

Before I proceed to a description of Moldavia, I shall communicate to the reader a short, but tolerably accurate, account of that province, and of Wallacia, which was written previous to the breaking out of the last war between the Russians and Turks, by a French officer, in the service of Russia. The author, knowing that I was collecting materials relative those countries, made me a present of his manuscripts, with permission to make what use of it I thought proper ; but I have not thought myself justifiable in making any alteration in it, although his account of Moldavia differs in some degree from mine.

CURSORY OBSERVATIONS, MADE DURING A TOUR THROUGH WALLACHIA AND MOLDAVIA.

Weak states which are situated on the frontiers of, or are tributary to large empires, are generally the theatres of those wars which their powerful neighbours wage against each other, and experience all the horrors of warfare, without hope of aggrandizement or indemnity. The condition of
CAMPENHAUSEN.]

Such states is still more lamentable, if they contain fortresses, or other local peculiarities which are of importance in a military point of view. If, on the contrary, they contain nothing but open unfortified towns, and have no defiles or passes which can be easily defended, the hostile armies, alternately victorious and vanquished, pass through them with the devastating violence, but also with the rapidity of a torrent.

Such has been for ages the condition of Wallachia and Moldavia, countries in which the half-extinguished flames of war seem ready to burst forth again with increased virulence, and in which the systematic robbery of a despotic government succeeds to the atrocities of a lawless soldiery.

It will, perhaps, not be uninteresting at the present moment, to examine the moral and physical peculiarities of these countries, and to infer from thence the political changes which they are capable of undergoing; but unfortunately such a research will not engender a single consolatory reflection in the mind of the benevolent reader.

The Wallachians and Moldavians were formerly comprised under the general name of Dacians, who were celebrated in antiquity for their warlike spirit.

Unacquainted with luxury, and inured by their mode of life to abstinence and fatigue, they possessed every quality which is necessary to the military life; and their native valour, was fostered by a sentiment of religion, for they believed that the heroes who died in the field of battle were received in a world of bliss by Zamolxis, who, from having been their legislator, had become their god.

It has not been ascertained whether the Dacians were indigenous, or whether they had emigrated from some distant country; nor is it known to what degree of civilization they had attained. Several coins of Amyntas and Philip, kings of Macedonia, have been found in Wallachia and Moldavia, but no satisfactory inference relative to their commercial relations can be drawn from these uncertain memorials.

Tiberius was the first of the Roman emperors who attacked this nation, which must have been powerful at that period, as according to Strabo; it armed 200,000 combatants, whom the sword of the Romans reduced to the number of 40,000.

The Dacians preserved their liberty so long as the nations of Germany continued to make diversions in their favour;

but at the death of their king Decebalus, Wallachia and Moldavia submitted to the yoke of the conqueror.

The Roman emperors established colonies in those two countries, as their population had been considerably diminished by continued warfare. Some historians assert, that these colonies were composed of prostitutes and vagabonds of different descriptions: this is by no means improbable, and Rome, although she was at that time mistress of the world, could not boast of a more illustrious origin.

Trajan constructed a stone bridge, of more than five hundred fathoms in length, over the Danube, in order to unite Bulgaria with the banat of Crisjova. Adrian destroyed this bridge to arrest the progress of the barbarians (probably Slavonians) who came from Mœsia. These began again to make their appearance in the twelfth century, and established the centre of their power in Wallachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia. Their numerous hordes advanced with irresistible force, like waves which the wind impels from north to south; and, during several centuries, Adrianople, and even Constantinople, were exposed to the incursions of the Moldavians and Wallachians, united with the Slavonians of Bulgaria. But these inroads of barbarians, who had abandoned Asia to inundate Europe, had the effect of the sea, which in deluging the coast exposed to its encroachments, retires from the opposite bank. The place which so many warlike nations had left unoccupied, in abandoning their homes, was taken possession of by hordes of adventurers, who had come from a more distant and more populous country. The Tartars pursuing their vagrant course from desert to desert, approached towards Europe, spread themselves over the centre of Asia, and appeared on the confines of Italy. Gengis Khan traced back his steps; and two swarms of Tartars invaded Hungary and ancient Dacia; the one in 1235, the other in 1286. The inhabitants of Wallachia and Moldavia, the latter of which was at that time known by the name of Cumania, took refuge with their flocks in Hungary, to escape the dangers with which these insatiable and inexhaustible hordes continually threatened them. They put themselves under the protection of the kings of that country, who at that period took the title of princes of Wallachia and Cumania.

The incursions of the Tartars ceased at length, under the reign of Bela, and Louis the First, kings of Hungary. The Wallachian nation, which had taken refuge in Transylvania, returned to its native country under the guidance of

the chiefs Rudolph and Bogdan, who were distinguished by the Slavonian title Waiwod. Rudolph, surnamed the Black, established himself in the tract of country which is situated between the rivers Aluth and Siret, and this country is Wallachia, properly so called. He and his successors rebuilt the cities of Campolung, Curti d'Argis, Targoutz, and Bucharest, which afterwards became, at different epochs, the residence of the Waiwods.

Rudolph was probably a descendant of the Slavonian princes who reigned in Servia, as his nephew, Dan Bessaraba, succeeded him on the throne of Wallachia without opposition, and left it to his posterity.

The names of those princes prove them to have been of Slavonian origin: the Slavonian language was made use of in all the public acts, in the inscriptions, and in the liturgy of Wallachia. The Boyards, a word which corresponds to our word Knight, constituted the nobility of the country, and probably descended from Slavonians, the last conquerors of the country.

The remainder of the Wallachians, that is, the subjects, were probably descendants either of the Romans, or of the ancient Dacians.

Bogdan, the other chief of the emigrant Wallachians, passed from Transylvania into Cumania, which at this time took the name of Moldavia, from the name of a river which passes through it; or Bogdania, from the name of its chief, which name the Turks give it to this day. The cities of Sorocca, Romanoff, and Jassi, were built by Bogdan. Until that period, Wallachia and Moldavia enjoyed, under their hereditary princes, a uniform legislation and civil institutions, which were calculated to ensure the liberty of the subject.

My object is not to give a chronological list, or historical account, of the sovereigns who reigned in those countries, but to fix the epoch when the fallacious policy or ambition of some of the Boyards involved them in slavery and misfortune.

It was in the year 1526, that Lewis the Second lost his life at the battle of Mohatz, which was gained by the Turks. The throne of Hungary was at that period vacant, and the country too much occupied by its intestine divisions, to be able to take an active part in the affairs of the neighbouring states.

The influence of Hungary and Poland in Wallachia and Moldavia, had given umbrage to the Boyards, who deter-

mined to avail themselves of the opportunity which presented itself to assert their independance, and their ambition completed that which the unruliness and inconstancy of their character had begun.

They opposed the execution of the will of Niagul Bessaraba, who had left his throne to his infant son Theodosius. The inheritance of the regal dignity was disputed by numerous pretenders; and some Boyards, who were as ambitious, but less powerful, than their competitors, solicited the aid of the Turks; but, instead of obtaining useful friends, they gave themselves imperious and unrelenting masters.

The Porte left the Wallachians and Moldavians in possession of no other privilege but that of electing their sovereigns, and even the right of exercising this function was but of short duration; the Wallachians lost it in 1714, when Constantine Brancovani was beheaded at Constantinople. The Moldavians lost it in 1711, the epoch of the revolt of prince Cantimir, and of his flight into Russia. It is at this period that the dynasty of the Greek princes commences.

Nicolas Maurocordato, the son of Alexander, who was plenipotentiary of the Porte at the peace of Carlovitz, was the first Greek who reigned in Wallachia.

The throne which was thus become the patrimony of the Greeks of the Fanal, and which was at once the reward of their intrigues, and the punishment of their ambition and perfidy, was held out for sale at the Seraglio, almost from year to year, and was given to the highest bidder.

We shall now take a chorographical view of Wallachia and Moldavia, in order to obtain a correct idea of the object of the cupidity of the Russians, and of the solicitude of the Turks. We shall afterwards speak of the inhabitants, who, whatever may be the result of the contest, will inevitably experience all the calamities of a conquered nation.

The Krapacks, which are a continuation of a chain of the Alps, traverse Bulgaria on one side, and after uniting themselves with Mount Hæmus, which is called Balkan by the Turks, lose themselves in the Black Sea; on the other side, they separate Moldavia and Wallachia from Transylvania, stretch out through the centre of Poland, and extend as far as the coast of the Baltic Sea.

Their summits are covered with snow, and they contain rich mines of iron and gold; but the ignorance of the princes, and of the nation in general, or the fear of exciting the cupidity of the Turks, has hitherto prevented the explora-

tion of them. Veins of the most beautiful marbles, and infinite varieties of calcareous spar, of opales, &c. &c. are to be found in every part of them; and craters of extinct volcanos, and mineral substances which have evidently undergone the action of fire, are to be met with in every direction.

The passage which leads from Wallachia into Transylvania, is called the Volcano; it is the most frequented of all the roads in this country, but it can only be travelled on horse-back. Torrents, which rush down the snow-covered mountains, and huge masses of rock, which are suspended over frightful precipices, form the natural limits of the two countries; and the wooden crosses of Wallachia, and imperial eagle of Austria, are the only objects which testify the empire of man over the unshapen chaos. From the lofty summits of these mountains the view extends over an immense plain, which is interspersed with forests and intersected by rapid rivers. Numerous flocks, which come down from the mountains to seek for shelter from the cold, on the banks of the Danube, browse on the scanty herbage, which is, in many places, covered with snow, are driven by the shepherds round stacks of dry fodder, which has been collected in summer. These shepherds wear a jacket and pantaloons of a kind of white woollen stuff, over which they throw an entire sheep's skin; they cover their heads with a bonnet of lamb's skin, and in this dress, which gives them more the appearance of beasts, standing on their hind legs, than of men, they continually drive their flocks round the stacks of fodder, to prevent them from being benumbed by the cold, and beat the snow from their backs with long poles, to prevent it from finally crushing them under its weight. Such is the spectacle which Wallachia and Moldavia presents from the 20th of December to the 20th of February; during which space of time the thermometer frequently descends to fifty degrees below the freezing point.

But as soon as the snow disappears, rich meadows and immense forests, with the most luxuriant foliage, present themselves to the view.

The summits of the mountains are covered with various kinds of firs; and poplar, white mulberries, beech, elm, ash, and oak trees, grow on their sides, and in the vallies on the banks of the rivers.

The cherry, apple, and pear trees, are covered with blossoms: Nature yields her stores with a prodigal hand, but the Wallachian does not profit by her bounty, for he is

a slave, and can only find safety in obscurity. Whilst Nature displays all her charms to excite the admiration of man, and compensate him for his toils, the Wallachian conceals himself, and the little which he possesses, under ground, lest he should fall a victim to the rapacity of the Turks. There are no farm-houses which give an idea of opulence or comfort, or present the wearied traveller with the hope of a hospitable reception.

With the exception of a few depopulated cities and miserable villages, the only habitations of man are subterraneous huts, situated as distant as possible from the high road.

The principal agricultural products are wheat, barley, Indian wheat, peas, vetches, and beans. Cucumbers, melons, water melons, and asparagus grows spontaneously. The asparagus, which grows in the islands of the Danube, is remarkable for the delicacy of its flavour. The *Lilium convallium*, the earliest flower of spring, may be seen here in all its beauty, and roses are in great abundance, but they are simple and without smell. At every step the traveller contemplates with admiration the beauty and abundance of nature, but also at every step he has reasons to accuse the indolence and injustice of man. The hills are covered with vines, and the wine which they produce is of an excellent quality, particularly that of Adobesti in Moldavia, and of Sacrovana and Rimnick in Wallachia. The art of making wine is not better understood in these two principalities than the other necessary arts of life. The best growth are exported to Transylvania, Poland, and Russia.

The traveller frequently sees several huge trees standing together, which have been hollowed out by the hand of man; these are the celebrated hives of Wallachia, which furnish immense quantities of honey, and also that peculiar kind of wax which is so much esteemed throughout all Europe. The bees swarm fifteen times, and would multiply infinitely if they were better taken care of, and if the peasants had not the absurd and barbarous custom of killing them to get at the wax and honey. A spectacle of a different kind, the noblest and most beautiful which can present itself, is that of a Moldavian pasture ground.

The Moldavian horses are much esteemed, and are generally either black or bay. The stallions, which are in possession of a colony of Armenians who are established in this country, are the most esteemed. Some Boyards have from a hundred to two hundred mares. The horses are kept out

in the open air the whole year; in summer they are driven to the pasture grounds, and in the snowy season they feed on dry fodder, which is heaped up in stacks; ten mares are generally given to a stallion, who never quits them, and defends them against the beasts of the forest. It frequently happens in winter that the studs are scattered about in different directions in quest of food. Suddenly one of the stallions neighs, and the others immediately answer; the mares and foals hasten to the spot from which the first neighing issued. The mares form a circle with their heads turned inwards, in the midst of which the foals stand. The stallions gallop round the circle neighing and snorting with tail and mane erect; the cause of the alarm was perhaps a wolf, which generally retires as soon as he perceives that the horses are prepared to receive him, but sometimes has the hardihood to attack them.

The mountains are inhabited by a race of men of robust make and healthy complexion. They are not deficient either in strength or courage; they are passionately fond of the chase, and attack the most ferocious bears of the Krapacks with intrepidity: these mountains abound in bears, wild boars, stags, and shamoyes. The woods are filled with roebucks, stags, and hares. The whole country is ravaged by wolves. Black game, moor game, partridges, pheasants, and quails are to be met with in great abundance. In the beginning of spring, the stork returns with the swallows, and builds his nest in the crevices of ruins, or returns to the nest which he had built the preceding year. They are never molested by the inhabitants, who have a superstitious veneration for them, and consider them birds of good omen. The woods of Wallachia seem to be the native country of the nightingales.

No pleasure can be more captivating to an uncorrupted mind, than that which is created by the aspect of the romantic vallies which are watered by the Danube. If the traveller, who is sensible to the beauties of nature, wander forth at the hour of midnight, when the pale light of the moon gives increased majesty to the tufted groves, whose trembling foliage seems to wave in unison with the melodious tones of the nightingale; he will feel his mind elevated by a sentiment of religious awe, and he will enjoy one of those rarely occurring intervals of bliss, which neither the varied pleasures of populous cities, nor the enjoyment of public entertainments, nor all the art of civilized man can equal. But to this sweet and solemn scene, the most tre-

mendous and fatal accidents ensue. At the moment when an abundant harvest is on the point of realizing the hopes of the unfortunate Wallachian, a black cloud suddenly obscures the horizon, and covers the golden crops with a veil of calamity and devastation.

Why must the purest sky, the most fertile soil in a word the most highly favoured countries of the earth, be subject, by an unaccountable, but invariable order of Providence, to peculiar disasters. India has its deluges of rain, the Antilles have their tempests, Turkey is devastated by the plague, and Moldavia and Wallachia by clouds of locusts. They inundate these beautiful provinces, and when once they have made their appearance, they continue for several years devouring the produce of the earth, in regular, and as it were, systematic progression. As soon as all is consumed they pass over the Krapacks, and recommence their ravages in Transylvania, where whole regiments are employed by the government in dispersing them, by firing cannon and lighting fires in different directions. Sometimes these clouds of locusts avail themselves of a strong wind to repass the Danube, and return into Asia; but if the wind veer about during their course, the innumerable shoals clash against each other, they fall dead to the ground, and the coasts of the Black Sea are on these occasions covered with them to the depth of several inches.

Immense quantities of black cattle are bred on the pastures of Moldavia and Wallachia: The vallies are watered by several rivers which empty themselves into the Dniester and the Danube. The names of the principal of these rivers are, the Pruth and the Sirét in Moldavia; the Argis, the Aluth, and the Buses, in Wallachia, together with the Ribnik, whose waters are brackish; the Salowaitza and the Dumbowitza, the latter of which passes by the Bucharest, and is said to possess the virtue of the fabulous Lotus, that of making foreigners forget their native country. "Dumbowitza," says an ancient Wallachian proverb, "He who has drank of thy delicious waters cannot quit thy banks." I confess that the water of the Dumbowitza did not produce that effect on me. These immense masses of water cause dreadful inundations, which would be still more destructive if the culture and population of the country were in proportion to the extent of territory and fertility of the soil. Southern winds generally prevail in the month of June, and bring abundant rains; and it is singular that at this period,

it rains regularly at the same hour every day, and after the rain has ceased, the sky becomes perfectly pure and serene.

The same winds prevail also in the Archipelagus, and repel the waves which the Black Sea sends into the Mediterranean by the Bosphorus. The rivers which empty themselves into the first of these reservoirs, inundate the whole of the flat country through which they pass, and form immense lakes.

Few countries furnish such abundant quantities of pit-coal, yellow amber, bitumen, and nitre. It is this last substance, with which the soil is too much impregnated, that occasions the excessive cold which is experienced in Moldavia; a second cause of this cold is the want of all shelter of mountains or forests on the side of Russia; nothing protects it from the icy emanations which it constantly receives from the deserts in the north of Europe.

The language of Wallachia is a corrupted Latin.

The principality of Wallachia, which extends from Fociani to the Aluth, and which comprises the Bannat of Craiova, is called, in the language of the country, *Zara rumanesca*, or Roman empire; and the peasants are called Ruman or Romans, to distinguish them from the noblemen or Boyards. The word Roman is become a term of contempt in Wallachia, as in Greece the word *Rouicos*. Thus the degradation into which states fall, is extended even to their names. After having entered into these details, which relate to the country alone, I shall give some account of its present inhabitants.

The population of Wallachia and Moldavia amounts to about a million, but the irregular manner in which the taxes are levied, renders it difficult to ascertain its amount with precision. The usual modes of calculating the population of a country are wholly unknown to the Turkish government, and cannot be well applied to this country, as the mass of the inhabitants possess no landed property. The clergy are in possession of a third part of the land, and the remainder belongs to the prince and Boyards. The capitation tax is not so much levied on the inhabitants separately as on the villages. It is supposed, for instance, that a certain village contains a hundred hearths, and in this case it is subject to a tax of four hundred piasters. If the number of hearths be greater than that at which it has been estimated, the tax is easily collected without the interference of the *Ispranik*, or governor of the district; the peasants, unable, fix the sum which each family is to pay, fall

out amongst themselves; and generally terminate their deliberations by a battle; the Poncalako, who fulfils the function of curate, carries the money to the receiver general. But when government supposes a greater number of hearths in the village than it really contains, the inhabitants make remonstrances, which are never paid any attention to, and then emigrate in a body to some adjoining country, or to villages which are in another district, and frequently experience the same oppression the following year. It will easily be perceived, that under such an administration, statistical knowledge must be in a very imperfect state. The Porte makes extraordinary demands from time to time, and on these occasions the prince levies an additional tax, from which even the Boyards and convents are not exempted. The Porte also derives a considerable revenue from the monopoly of different articles of commerce.

Galacy, situated on the Danube, at the extremity of the peninsula which is formed by the Pruth and the Siret, is the only port of Moldavia. It is to this spot that the inhabitants, according to a firman of the Ottoman Porte, are obliged to bring their cattle and corn for sale. Justice is still more unknown in these parts, than in the celebrated fairs on the banks of the river, where the Russians and Chinese vie with each other in roguery, and where it is said that the latter acknowledge themselves to be vanquished in the art of cheating. At Galacy, the janissaries, and even Greeks, who are provided with the formidable firman, fix the prices of the articles which they purchase, make use of false weights and measures, and spare neither menaces nor ill treatment to obtain their purpose, and the unfortunate peasants are obliged to return with whatever sum of money the purchasers may have thought proper to give them, and consider themselves peculiarly fortunate if they do not bring back the plague with them to their native homes. In general, there are few countries in which the situation of the peasant is much more calamitous. The Hospodar, whose protection he vainly hopes to purchase by the enormous taxes which he pays, is neither powerful enough to defend him against the subjects of the Porte, nor sufficiently generous to protect him against the injustice of the Boyards. Oppressed and plundered, by one and the other, and in daily dread of being robbed of his oxen and instruments of husbandry by the tax-gatherer, he has recourse to the perfidious assistance of usurers, the interest of his debts accumulate, he sells his standing crops for a few piasters, and

his ruin is speedily completed. At length he is obliged to work for his unfeeling creditors, and the scanty sustenance with which they think proper to furnish him is scarcely sufficient to prolong a miserable existence. None but the criminal, who is condemned to labour in the mines of Mexico or Dalecarlia, can envy the lot of the unfortunate Wallachian; for although his labours be unproductive, they at least do not deprive him of the light of day.

The external appearance of the Wallachians, forms a singular contrast with the state of degradation in which they live. Their manly countenance, the axe which is suspended from their girdle, the sheepskin, which is thrown across the left shoulder, and fastened on the breast, reminds one of the old Roman attire; the buskins which they wear, all serve to give an idea that the Wallachians are a poor but warlike people, and one is indignant to find so much weakness and pusillanimity, under such a bold and dignified exterior. But although the oppression, under which they have so long laboured, has degraded their character, it has not been capable of obliterating those external traces of energy and independence with which nature has impressed them.

Since these provinces have lost their independance, there have been many instances of Greeks without either birth or talent, being raised by means of money or interest to the rank of Hospodar; but the same means frequently hurl them from their elevation, and plunge them into their former obscurity. This prosperity sometimes does not last longer than three or four days; and it is not extraordinary that these ephemeral sovereigns characterize their precarious reigns by all the insolence and pride of upstart power. The Boyards approach the Hospodar with fear and trembling; the most distinguished of them are rarely admitted to the honour of kissing his hand. The holdest of them make a sign of the cross when they are admitted into his presence; implore the protection of their tutelary saint, and bend to the ground to kiss his foot, or the hem of his garment. He is environed by all the ensigns of sovereignty; he has pages, chamberlains, a guard of two hundred Albanians or Servians, a kind of militia which is extremely brave, and magnificently dressed; a band of Turkish music plays twice a day before his door, as is the custom in Constantinople before the door of the seraglio; and of all the privileges which the Hospodar enjoys, it is to this that he attaches

the greatest importance, as it is the most flattering to his vanity.

But the pride of the Hospodar is completely humbled by the presence of the meanest of the Turkish officers. Whenever a person of this description arrives in Wallachia or Moldavia, which is frequently the case, he pays a visit to the prince to receive the customary presents, and is always received with distinguished honours. A still greater humiliation awaits the Hospodar when the arrival of a Pacha of three tails, such as the commandant of Choczim or Bender is announced. The prince is obliged to go out to meet him; and as soon as he perceives him at a distance, he dismounts from his horse, kisses the hem of his pelisse in the most respectful manner, and accompanies him on foot. Arrived at his own palace he dares not take a seat until the Pacha has respectfully invited him to do so. He willingly submits to these humiliations, for he knows that the Pacha may become Grand Vizir, and would then have abundant means of revenging himself on any Hospodar who should have been deficient in respect towards him. The Pachas frequently repeat these visits, as they are accompanied by magnificent presents, which the Hospodar never fails to offer, nor his guests to accept. But the most fatal visits which the prince receives, are those of the Capidgi Bachi, who never comes but to depose him, or to demand his head. During eighty years there have been sixty hospodars deposed in Wallachia and Moldavia, and twenty-five beheaded, drowned, hanged, assassinated, or poisoned, by order of the Porte. The Capidgi Bachi, who are entrusted with these orders, which are called firman, execute them in whatever manner they can, as they are in danger of being anticipated by those whom they are ordered to make away with. In this manner perished Gregory Glicca; but it is difficult to say whether his conduct, or the mode which was taken to punish him, were more infamous.

One of his most intimate friends, who was invested with the title of inspector of the fortress of Choczim, was sent to him on this occasion; for it is the custom of the Porte to give some ostensible character to the Capidgi's, who are charged with these secret commissions. The friends of Glicca at Constantinople had written to him, to warn him of the hostile intentions of the Divan, but could not specify the person who was to be charged with the execution of its purpose. As soon as Glicca heard of the arrival of his friend, who pretended illness, he set out from his palace to

pay him a visit, but received on the way a letter from the Hospodar of Wallachia, warning him to be on his guard. He paid no attention to this friendly hint, and as if he were destined to aid the purposes of his enemies, he went, contrary to custom, unarmed, and did not suffer the captain of his Albanian guard, who accompanied him on all occasions, and who was remarkable for his courage and bodily strength, to enter along with him into the apartment of his sick friend. After the pretended invalid had conversed with him for some time with affected cordiality, he asked him for a pinch of snuff, but pretending not to like that which Ghicca offered him, he desired one of his servants to bring in some snuff of a different quality, which was in a box in another room. The Turk soon returned and presented it to Ghicca, and at the same time drew out a poignard, with which he stabbed him twice in the breast. Ghicca, who was strong and active, made an effort to leap out of the window, but several Turks rushed into the room at this moment, and dispatched him. His head was cut off, sent to Constantinople, and exposed, according to custom, for three days at the gate of the seraglio. His body was given to his family, and his property was seized by the Sultan.

After having spoken of the people and the princes, I shall say a few words relative to the Boyards. A Greek monk, escaped from his convent, is chosen for their preceptor, when it is thought proper to give them one. Their education is confined to the study of the Greek, which is the only language spoken at court; and the examples, which are continually before their eyes, in the paternal mansion, complete this brilliant commencement. They pass their earliest years in the society of their father's slaves, who are gipsies of both sexes, a detestable race of beings, who indulge in every species of libertinism from the earliest infancy.

Even if the young Boyards were endowed by nature with generous sentiments, they could not fail to be corrupted by the examples of vice, of which they are continually witnesses. The Boyards, particularly those of Wallachia, are fond of dancing, of festive sports, and of the joys of the table.

The women are as much addicted to gambling as the men, and this passion does not embellish them here more than it does in other countries. The Boyards, like the ancient Greeks, have a singular passion for news; but I have seen an account of the expences of the prince of Moldavia, for gaudes and different German newspapers, which

amounted to three thousand three hundred and ninety piastres. The Boyards are sometimes animated by the most rancorous hatred for each other, but this is seldom of long duration. When any office of considerable trust or emolument becomes vacant, they exert all their efforts to supplant each other, the nearest relations do not visit each other so long as the crisis lasts, but as soon as the employment is disposed of they resume their former habits of intimacy. This ambition is extremely natural, and the conduct of the Boyards on such occasions forms a very honourable contrast with the hypocrisy and hereditary hatred, which in more civilized countries, attest so long and in such a scandalous manner, that two men have aspired at the same honour. The luxury of the male and female Boyards is unbounded. Their dresses consist of the richest Indian stuffs, shawls, sable furs, &c. Both the one and the other present the most brilliant models of Oriental elegance. The women are dressed in the Turkish manner; their hair, which is cut short, and retains its natural colour, is covered by a piece of red or black stuff folded in the form of a turban, and adorned with garlands of flowers; I have seen many which were covered with diamonds. The graces of a woman who is dressed in the Oriental manner, have a different character from those of European females, but are not less captivating. This costume renders their indolent languor peculiarly voluptuous; the Greek women are in general characterized by a melancholy cast of countenance, which derives increased interest from the unequalled beauty and animation of their eyes, whose lustre is modified by their long black eye-lashes. When I was at Bucharest I paid a visit to a person of distinction, whom I found sitting in the middle of a large room, smoking a pipe, the head of which reached the ground, and was placed on a silver plate, which was at the distance of about four feet from him; he held his pipe with one hand, and with the other he signed several papers which were presented to him. At the end of the apartment eight or ten Wallachians lay in a reclining posture, opposite to the same number of female Boyards. By degrees the room became filled with women dressed in the most splendid attire, who sat down with their legs turned under them, and took up no more room in this position, than a French or English female would do in a standing posture. They bent forward in such a manner that their heads, covered with flowers and precious stones, nearly touched, and resembled so many lustres. • Formerly the men went out to

take the air on horseback only, but at present German chariots are in general use, and are become a favourite object of luxury. During the greater part of the night these chariots drive with considerable rapidity through the streets of Bucharest, which have planks laid across them as a substitute for pavement.

Servants on foot, like the Italian *volanté*, precede the carriage, carrying flambeaus of Naphtha, which continue to burn for several hours. One is terrified and astonished to see these carriages drive with rapidity over the planks which are frequently broken and rotten, and are covered in winter with snow, but it is very seldom that any disagreeable accidents occur, notwithstanding the number of concealed or visible crevices. When I was at Jassy, I lodged in one of those splendid palaces, which the Boyards build in the Oriental style, and of which upwards of 150 tower majestically over the other edifices of the metropolis of Moldavia. The roof, which is nearly flat, projects beyond the front of the building, and is supported by columns, which form an agreeable peristyle on the ground floor, and a balcony or open saloon in front of the first story. Frequently this saloon is a hundred feet in length, adorned in front by a tasty ballustrade, and is furnished with sofas, which are covered with the richest stuffs, Turkish carpets, cushions of gold and silver cloth, &c. The women who inhabit these palaces are, in general, extremely beautiful, and are either descendants of the ancient Greek families, or natives of Constantinople.

They sit on their heels, or recline in a languid manner on their divans, with their heads thrown considerably backward. The men, who are permitted to visit them, are always half-reclined alongside of them. A light short petticoat imperfectly conceals their beauteous forms, and their head dresses resemble those of the higher order of females in Bucharest. The female Boyards have always a chaplet of pearls, coral, lapis lazuli, or agate in their hands, which they make use of with at least as much grace as our ladies do of fans. They constantly twine the beads of these chaplets in their fingers, and are said to have invented a kind of alphabet on them, by means of which they communicate their secrets to their lovers and confidants. But although it is an easy matter to promise a rendezvous in this manner, it is extremely difficult to carry it into execution, on account of the number of male and female slaves by which every woman of distinction is surrounded. Each of these slaves

has a distinct function. The moment a stranger enters, one of the men slaves brings him three or four pipes, a female slave presents him a saucer with confect of roses, another offers him a cup of coffee, and a third a glass of water. This ceremony is repeated at the house of twenty Boyards, if a stranger have occasion to visit them, and it would be considered an unpardonable act of unpoliteness not to accept every thing that is offered on these occasions. The conversation is seldom animated in these circles, for the precariousness of life and fortune, and the constant expectation of the arrival of some fatal order, either from the Divan of Constantinople, or from the palace of the Hospodar, occasions an invincible melancholy.

Fifty persons who daily meet at each others houses seemed to be in constant dread of seeing the fatal cord arrive; and one hears every moment, "Here my father was massacred by the emissaries of the Porte: here my sister was strangled by order of the Hospodar." The young persons of both sexes who have occasion to enter the apartment of a Boyard, leave their slippers at the foot of the stairs, lest they should spoil the beautiful carpets, or sully the sanctuary in which their masters repose; after having executed their commission, they walk out of the room backwards, put on their slippers, and sit down in a corner on their heels. When they are wanted they are called for by a clapping of hands.

Constantinople prescribes the fashions for Jassy, as London and Paris do for the country towns of England and France. Yellow was the favourite colour of the Sultaness, and was generally adopted by the females of Jassy when I was there. Long pipes of cherry wood had succeeded those of jessamine at Constantinople, and the Boyards consequently made use of no other kind. The servants who stand behind the open carriage carry a number of pipes for the use of their master, and this is an exclusive privilege of the Boyards, who never go on foot, and are to the full as indolent as the Turks. The women would be much more beautiful if they were not quite so corpulent, but this is considered such a beauty, that a woman once apologized to me for the slenderness of her daughter's waist; "but that defect will soon be remedied," she said, "at present it is a shame to see her, for she is as straight and as thin as a reed." The singularity of their dress and manners render handsome women captivating, but make the ugly appear hideous. [On seeing the women in their reclining posture.]

ture, in a room which was not well lighted, I have been tempted to believe that they were a number of pelisses that had been left on the sofa.

I was once at a ball at Jassy, at which I saw a number of Greek, Moldavian, Wallachian, and Turkish dances executed; they seemed all to have no other aim or object than to inspire voluptuous ideas. The music is simple, and even monotonous; as to the Turkish dances, the allegories which they present are by no means equivocal; they are little better than the pictures of Arcin put in action; in fact it would be extraordinary if the Turks had any delicacy in their fictions as they have so little in their enjoyments.

Nothing can equal the number of palaces in Bucharest and Jassy, if it be not that of the churches and convents. All the princes and monied men have had the vanity to build palaces to perpetuate their memory, and have not forgotten to adorn the walls with their portraits, and with those of the different persons of their family.

The people, in general, are of the Greek religion, and their piety degenerates into the grossest superstition. They believe in the existence of sorcerers, magic, witchcraft, &c.; they believe that there are people who have the power of afflicting their enemies with sickness, or withering a tree by a single look; this idea of the influence of a malevolent look, exists throughout the whole of the Levant. The Turks hang ostrich eggs on their kiosks, to divert the inauspicious look, and the Wallachians hang a clove of garlic about their children's necks for the same purpose. Credulity is in all parts of the world the child of ignorance; but the most lamentable superstition here, is that of the famous Vampires, so well known to *Dop Calmet*. It is a productive mine, which the priests work with considerable industry; but I shall not enter into the details of their conduct, out of respect for the religion which they dishonour. The women of the lower classes of society have a melancholy dejected air, and seem to regret that they are condemned to give birth to victims who are devoted to misfortune. The smiling animated countenances of the children, forms a singular contrast with this gloomy discontent and undefined melancholy. Their parents ornament their heads with all the pieces of money which they are possessed of, and this is the reason why all the coins to be met with in this country have holes in them. The young girls are extremely animated, are passionately fond of dancing, and love to adorn themselves with flowers. Their mothers watch them

with unemitted vigilance, for it would be an everlasting blemish on them, if their husbands, not finding them possessed of proofs of their chastity on the bridal night, were to send them back to their families.

When once they are married, neither the mothers nor the daughters seem to attach much importance to conjugal fidelity.

A singular custom existed in this country some years ago, even amongst the upper classes of society, which I understand is generally regretted, although it is wholly abolished. On the bridal night, when modesty and love maintain a contest with each other, which generally terminates as agreeably to the vanquished as to the conqueror, the relations of the bride ran after the younger brothers and nearest relations of the bridegroom, to avenge on them, as they said, the sufferings of the bride.

At the end of the year the family assembled to celebrate the anniversary of the marriage, and the same ceremony recommenced; but the relations of the husband were allowed to purchase an exemption from the threatened vengeance, by a present of wine.

The Wallachians, with the exception of those who inhabit the mountains, are of a weak constitution, and seldom live to a very advanced age. Their weakness may probably arise from their mode of dwelling in subterraneous huts, in order to be less exposed to the eye of plunder; it may also be caused by the abuse of pleasures, to which they addict themselves at an early age, and by the frequency of venereal diseases, which they do not know how to treat. Tyranny renders them distrustful, timid, and abject; the perfidy, injustice, and oppression of which, they are constantly the victims, render it necessary for them to have recourse in their turn to dissimulation and dishonesty; in a word they appear to be as much deserving of pity as of blame.

Jassy, the capital of Moldavia, is situated on an eminence which is surrounded by still higher hills; it is watered by the Bachlin, an insignificant stream, whose waters are muddy, as the inhabitants have taken no pains to clean its bed, or to drain the marshes which surround the town. The wall round the town was built by the hospodar Radul. The city was taken by the Poles under the command of Sobiesky in the year 1686. Peter the Great got possession of it in 1711; the Austrian huzzars, under the command of the hospodar Michael Rakowitz, made themselves masters

of it in 1717; field-marshal Romanzow conquered it in 1769; the Austrian general Spleny, in the spring of 1787, and the Russian general count Soltikov, took possession of it in the autumn of the same year. The monastery of Golia, and several of the principal buildings in the city, were destroyed by an earthquake in the year 1739; and a dreadful fire which broke out in 1753 consumed the newly built houses, together with a great part of the city. I myself felt a shock of an earthquake in the year 1790, which threw down several chimnies, and occasioned openings in the earth; which, in some places, were between two and three feet wide. Jassy contains 6000 houses, fourteen palaces of the nobility, four convents, forty-three churches and chapels, and about 15,500 inhabitants.

According to the surveys made by the Russians in 1790, the number of the inhabitants amounted only to 14,863, but soon after, considerable numbers who had fled to avoid the fury of the Turks, were encouraged to return by the successes of the Russians.

There are three monasteries, Galata, Formosa, and Tschesackznil, and one convent, called Sakol, on the south side of the city, and on the farther side of the marshes. The convent of the Holy Trinity in the city, is a large gothic building, which was founded in the year 1648, but is built in the style of the thirteenth century. The front of it is built of large square stones, each of which has a figure carved on it. It was formerly gilded on the outside; but the Tatars heaped up a considerable quantity of wood in the body of the church, to melt off the gold, and by this means the building sustained a good deal of injury.

The relics of St. Euphrasia were kept here, and were usually exposed to public view when it was thought necessary to pray for rain. The garments of St. John Chrysostome is considered one of the most valuable treasures which are contained in the church. It is made of cloth, whose original colour is no longer discernible, but it is almost covered with golden crosses, resembling those of the Greek polychrists. All the treaties concluded with the Porte were formerly kept here; but Sobiesky burned them, and carried away the miraculous image of the Virgin Mary.

The streets of the city are narrow and dirty, and are infested with an immense number of insects, particularly the species of frog called *Rana Bufo*; in Russian, Jab; and a kind of mole, *Gryllo Talpa*. There are but few poisonous

insects in Moldavia; tarantula's are rarely to be met with here; but white spiders, flies, and gnats are very abundant, and are larger here than in other countries.

The dress of the women of distinction in Moldavia resembles that which the Russian princesses wore three hundred years ago.

They wear on the back a long skin, which is of sable, ermine, &c. according to the riches of the person who wears it.

The potwal or girdle is ornamented with large golden or silver ornaments, and sometimes with precious stones. As it is very broad, it presses the breast upwards, and the belly downwards, to such a degree that the women all look as if they were with child. The Greek call the Moldavians *Cap de Bu*, (Ox-heads), and are in their turn entitled by these, ravenous vultures. The *Syrnick*, with which the women eradicate the hairs from certain parts of their bodies, is a mixture of auripigment and lime. A favourite dish of the Moldavians, of which they are extremely proud, is called *Placenta* in Moldavian, and *Burekky* in Turkish; it is a kind of greasy cake, and is cried in the streets of Jassy, by the name of *Caldă Placenta*. As I am on this subject, I shall speak somewhat more at large of the cookery of the Moldavians and of the Turks. As I heard whilst I was at Bender, that a cook, who had formerly been in the service of the Sultan, had set up a kind of tavern or eating house there, and was celebrated for his skill in the culinary art, I made a party, with some of my brother officers, to partake of a dinner dressed and served in the Turkish manner, and as we determined to give him full scope for the exercise of his talents, we gave him a days' notice, and left to him to fix the price of the entertainment. We repaired to the tavern at the appointed hour, seven in number, and were shewn into a private apartment, whose whole furniture consisted of a divan made of clay, covered with red cloth. As soon as we had seated ourselves in the Turkish manner, which we found very inconvenient, our host entered, accompanied by six other Turks, each of whom carried in his hand a table about four inches high; the tables were set before us on the ground, and we were served with smoked sausages, which were highly seasoned with garlick and Indian pepper; then came, first, a kind of pudding, made of rice, mutton suet, saffron, raisins, and currants; 2d. a dried fowl, with sour sauce, highly peppered; 3d. the celebrated *plaw*, or *pilaw*, which is rice, with hashed mutton

and raisins; 4th. fish stewed in rancid oil; 5th. French beans dressed with a considerable quantity of pepper; 6th. roast mutton, which was burned to rags. After we had partaken of these different dishes, we were asked if we wished for pastry, and on our answering in the affirmative, a fellow covered with filthy rags, entered with a basket, and laid a kind of pancake covered with cinnamon before us, for which we were obliged to pay apart. The most singular part of this entertainment was, that we were offered neither wine, sherbet, nor any other liquor to drink, and on our enquiring the cause, the only answer which we received, was, "Every one must live, such is the will of the prophet." In fact, we afterwards learned, that by the laws of Turkey, no person who keeps an eating house is allowed to sell wines or other liquors; however, persons who dine or sup in houses of this description are allowed to send for whatever wines they think proper; but as we were not aware of this, we were obliged to content ourselves with water, although there was an excellent wine-cellar in the neighbourhood; our dinner cost us fourteen rubles, or upwards of two guineas. The Turks, and particularly the Moldavians, are extremely sober and moderate; the latter make a hearty meal on a piece of bread and head of garlick, or a couple of onions. The liquor which they usually drink is distilled from the hulls of grapes, and has a tolerably good flavour. In Moldavia there are always small cakes, called Kalzony, served with the soup.

Their Alva dolze is made of unripe walnuts, preserved in honey; they seem to have adopted this from the Jews. Another kind of preserve which is common to the Moldavians and Turks, is that which is made of dried grapes, meal, and sugar, kneaded into a paste, and made up into a cubic form; this is called Rahat-Locum in Turkish, and Ratdolze in Moldavian. Both the Turks and Moldavians are fond of food that is fat, sweet, and highly peppered. Sherbet is made either from fruit or flowers, which are put into boiling syrup, and kept until the whole becomes a solid mass, it is then dissolved in water, and forms a very agreeable beverage.

There are about 12,000 catholic families in Moldavia, thirty of which live in Jassy, and the surrounding country. They are under the inspection of the superior of the monastery of the Minorites in Jassy, who is himself subordinate to the Nuncio in Vienna. He must also, in some cases, confer with the bishop resident in Nicopolis. When the

Turks, in the year 1786, persecuted the Jews, and put several hundreds of them to death, the Greek canon of the church of the Ascension in Jassy gave an exemplary proof of christian charity, by concealing and providing food for a number of those devoted victims, at the risk of his own life.

The soil of Moldavia is impregnated with lime and salt-petre, which are unfavourable to vegetation. The *Radix Tormentillæ*, and the *Verbascum Thaspus*, which grow in such abundance in Bessarabia, are rarely to be met with here. All vegetable productions are smaller, and weaker here than in Wallachia. In the latter land the *Juniperus Sabina* is very abundant, but in Moldavia it is only to be found in the gardens near Kukute. On the other hand, the *Populus nigra* grows in abundance here, and is very rare in Wallachia. *Liquorice*, in Moldavian *Rădicine dulce*, grows only on the frontiers of the two principalities. The *Bachlui* is filled with *Scordium*, which is to be found in no other part; and the *Nasturtium aquaticum* grow only in one spot, which is a marsh, about the distance of twenty versts from Brahlow. This plant, the *Veronica beccabunga*, and horse-radish, are the only antiscorbutics known here. I have not seen spoonwort grow any where but in gardens, although the markets are abundantly provided with it.

The woods of Roman and Focktschani are filled with the *Orchis morio*, from whose root the liquor called Salep is made. The Moldavians grind this root into powder, and then pour boiling water, mixed with wheat meal, on it. As soon as it has attained the necessary consistence, it is strained through linen, then sweetened with sugar, and mixed with ginger, and is afterwards diluted with a water distilled from the *Centaurea benedicta*. It is considered a good stomachic, and almost all the apothecaries in Jassy sell Salep prepared in this manner. The *Centaurea benedicta* grows in all the fields, and the Moldavian ladies always carry a small bottle of the water distilled from it.

The mountains of Jassy and Kalarasch produce the *Imperatoria ostruthium*, and the plains in the neighbourhood of Jassy and Tschardack abound in the *Orchis bifolia*, *Arnica*, (instead of which the ignorant physicians of Jassy make use of the *Hyoseris minima*), *Artemisia pontica*, and *Triticum repens*, which the physicians make use of instead of Sarsaparilla. White Gentian, and the *Laserpitium latifolium* grow only in the arid deserts of Bessarabia, but the red Gentian and Centaury grow abundantly in the moist lands of Moldavia. The *Cicuta virosa*, and also the com-

mon kind, are made use of as a remedy against the venereal disease. The Moldavians are fond of a salad made of the *Scandix cerefolium*, and the *Ranunculus ficaria*. The houses are mostly covered with the *Amaranthus caudatus*, the *Chenopodium vulvaria*, and the *Anthemis ramosus*. On the approach of the Russians in 1788, the Turks destroyed all the gardens and green houses here; the latter, which belonged to the Hospodar and principal nobility, were the best in Europe, and contained a great abundance of sweet and Seville oranges, lemons, and laurel trees of an extraordinary height and thickness. In the once celebrated garden of prince Delean Cantacuzenes, I found nothing but a few half withered fig-trees. The banks of the Sotschawa are in some places covered with birch trees, and in the neighbourhood of Batuschan there is an extensive plantation of the *Ricinus*. The cavities in the mountains between Jassy and Ko-Kutschén, are filled with *Lythrum Salicaria*, and *Hyssopifolia*, and the fields in the neighbourhood of Kuschenau are covered with *Erysimum Allharia*. I found the *Egopodium Podagraria* in a grove near Galathia, about twelve vests from Jassy. The forests of Moldavia consist chiefly of poplars, a small species of oak, linden, hazel, and elms. Pines, firs, and birches are scarcely ever to be met with here. The botanist also loses sight of the beautiful *Salix Babylonica*, on quitting the frontiers of Bessarabia.

Deer of all kinds, but particularly the *Cervus Dama*, wander through the woods of Moldavia; and great shamoys, *Capra rupicapra*, in Moldavian *Caprivaria di munte*, are to be met with in the mountains.

The banks of the Bachelui are so infested with wolves that no flocks can be left to pasture on them. The kind of jackall, which is called *Czatalin* in Bessarabia, is not to be found in Moldavia. They exactly resemble the African jackall in form and manner of screaming.

The bustards and tufted larks, of which I have already spoken, are to be found here in great abundance. The Tatars have brought the large bluish cat from the Crimea to this country, and it may be observed that the emigration of the wandering tribes of barbarians, has almost always been accompanied by an emigration of beasts, particularly of cats. In this instance, the jackall is only to be found in those parts of Europe where the Mongol Tatars have resided. The European cat preserves its colour and small mouse-ears here; but that of the Crimea becomes of a darker colour and larger in size. These pigeons are very rare in

Moldavia, but wild pigeons, wood-pigeons, turtle-doves, &c. are in great abundance. All kinds of hawks are to be found here. Every shrub is filled with goldfinches, thistle-finches, and red-breasts; nightingales are rare, and bull-finches not to be met with.

The Moldavian merchants frequent the fairs of Leipsic and Breslaw in Germany, and the different fairs of Poland and Russia, particularly that of Neschin.

Their trade consists principally of silk stuffs of Turkish manufacture, embroidery, Morocco leather, wine, wax, honey, skins, fruit, particularly plums, which are of a very superior quality, oxen, sheep, tallow, tobacco pipes, canvas, (in Moldavian Tschetaré), and various toys made of *Taxus baccata*. Their wines are sent chiefly to Transylvania, Poland, and Russia; that which is grown at Odobechty is much esteemed.

Russia likewise consumes great part of their excellent wormwood wine. The spann, which is somewhat less than a barrel, costs about two shillings English. From ten to twelve thousand spans are exported every year to Russia, where it is called "Monastirskoye vino." The wines which are grown in the neighbourhood of Jassy are weak, and do not keep longer than a year. The sale of tubes for tobacco-pipes is an important branch of commerce in Moldavia, and brings in about 1600 pounds sterling annually. Immense droves of horned cattle are sent to Russia and Hungary. I have myself collected these details from the custom-house registers.

Moldavia and Wallachia lie between the 41 and 47 degrees of latitude, and the 44° and 49° of longitude. The Sireth divides these two principalities from north-west to north-east. Moldavia is 250 versts in length, and 244 in breadth. The Pruth, which is the Hyerasos of the ancients, divides the principality of Moldavia into two nearly equal parts, from north-west to south-east, and empties itself into the Danube. The upper part of the country is called Sus, and lower part Sos; and these two parts are divided into fifteen zenuths or districts; which, together with the Raya of Khotin, contain about 800,000 inhabitants.

The ecclesiastical government of this country consists of the metropolitan of Jassy, who, together with the bishops of Husch and Rœmna constitutes the consistory. Each priest is obliged to pay four picces, called Byr-Krus, and sixteen Parahs, or about eight shillings and sixpence, yearly

to the metropolitan church. This tribute is called "Argento di Divotium." In law suits the causes are pleaded by the parties themselves, and are decided by the metropolitan. If the point be dubious, the six Greek books of the Armenopolus are consulted. A tolerably accurate idea of the learning of the Moldavian priests may be formed from the fact, that they re baptised a Calvinist, believing him to be a heathen. During the last war, the bishop of Catharinoslav had several elementary books of the Normal schools in Russia, translated into Moldavian, and distributed them amongst the priests and public schools. The abovementioned works of the Armenopolus is merely an abridgment of the Laws of the Greek Emperors, and is sanctioned by the Divan as the legal code of Moldavia. The Divan was originally composed of twelve members, exclusive of the Hospodar, but for some time it has consisted only of five persons, viz. the Logofeth or chancellor, whose salary is 1000 kas, or about twelve hundred pounds sterling a year; the Hettman of Kischenaw or court-marshal, who receives about three hundred and sixty pounds sterling a year; the Dwornick di Sus and the Dwornick di Sos, or governors of Upper and Lower Moldavia, each of whom receive about three hundred and twelve pounds sterling annually.

The climate of Moldavia, with the exception of that of Jassy, is mild and healthy. Several persons assured me that the diseases here are nearly the same as those which prevail at Venice. Bilious and inflammatory fevers are the principal diseases in spring. Tertian agues prevail from July to September; and bilious fever and inflammation of the breast are very fatal in autumn. Peruvian bark, provided it be preceded by a strong emetic, is found to be of considerable service here; but if the emetic be omitted, bark only serves to render the disease more virulent. The exhalations from the marshes round Jassy, and the high mountains, which impede the free current of air, are the principal causes of the unhealthiness of that city. Thunder storms are truly dreadful here. The west wind, which blows with considerable violence, is always accompanied by heavy rain. Reaumur's thermometer frequently rises to twenty-five, and sometimes to twenty-eight degrees in the month of May. Cherries are already ripe in this month; and apricots, peaches, melons, pears, and apples ripen towards the latter end of June or beginning of July.

The Moldavian Greeks and the Turks expose their utensils and cloaths in the open air, on St John's day, in order that they may be wetted with the dew of this day. They consider this to be an infallible preventative against the plague. Those who wish to have farther information relative to the supposed or real efficacy of this dew, may consult the works of Savary, Timoni, and Prosper Albinus.

Pricaut, in his work entitled, "*Etat present de l'Empire Turc*," page 113, gives as a false statement of the revenues of Moldavia, as he does of the tribute which this province pays to the Turks, although he pretends to have derived his information from a Woywode. I had long been in possession of the archives of the Hospodars, and shall here insert the most important statistical and historical details which I have collected from them. I shall at present merely present the reader with an abridged history of the hospodars of Moldavia, as I purpose publishing at some future day, a military and historical work relative to the principality of Moldavia, in which I shall treat this subject more at large.

Moldavia pays yearly, reckoning the purse at fifty pounds sterling :

	£.	s.	d.
1. To the Sultan, 120 purses —	6,000	0	0
2. Wax, 10,000 Okas, or 30,000 pounds weight, is paid in money —	833	7	0
3. Honey, 10,000 Okas —	1,666	14	0
4. Five Okas of glove leather —	83	0	0
5. Six hundred pieces of canvas to cloath the galley slaves —	2,000	0	0
6. Wax for the arsenal . . —	151	17	0
7. Tallow for the arsenal, 600 quintals —	666	7	0
8. To the Grand Vizier, 15 purses —	750	0	0
9. To the same, for a fur cloak —	333	7	0
10. To the Keaja, or principal steward of the Sultan, two purses and half —	125	0	0
11. To the Defterdar, or treasurer of the Sul- tan, five purses —	250	0	0

This is the established tribute which Moldavia is obliged to furnish: however, various pretences are imagined to increase it; for instance, Mauro Cordato, who was only two months Hospodar, was obliged to send 400 purses to the Sultan, exclusive of the presents which he made the ministers. The city of Jassy is obliged to send ten purses to

the Porte, and to the Chan of the Tatars, besides the tythe of all the sheep which belong to its inhabitants. The Hospodar receives the duties to which wine and salt are subject, besides the tythes of all swine and bees. His revenues ought not to amount to more than about 80,833 pounds sterling; however, he contrives by various acts of oppression and injustice, to raise them to 175,000 pounds, of which, it is true, he is obliged to send a considerable part to Constantinople, if he wish to reign for any length of time. The following are the presents which he is obliged to make every three years:

	£.	s.	d.
1. To the Sultan on New Year's day, 150 purses	7,500	0	0
2. To the Sultana Valide, or Sultan's mother, 80 purses	4,000	0	0
3. To the so called friend or favourite of the Sultan, 10 purses	500	0	0
4. To the Kishar Aga, or chief of the Eunuchs	500	0	0
	12,500	0	0

The presents which are made to the Mufti, the Kaimachan, and other Pachas are not comprized in the above list, as their amount is arbitrary.

Since the revolt of the Hospodar Mathias, Wallachia is obliged to pay 7,500*l.* more than it formerly did.

There is no country in Europe in which there are so many Gipsies as in Moldavia. They first established themselves here in the reign of the Hospodar Alexander the first, which was towards the end of the fourteenth century.

There are various opinions respecting their origin. A Russian author maintains that they were brought from India by the Tatars, and that they originally belonged to the cast of Sudery. Their dialect has some resemblance with the language of the Hindoos, for instance,

Gipsy dialect.	Indian.	English.
Ek.	Ek.	One.
Dui.	Du.	Two.
Trin.	Tin.	Three.
Pansch.	Pansch	Five.
Tschoye.	Tscho.	Six.
Efta.	Efta.	Seven.
Des.	Dos.	Ten.
Berge.	Burge.	Year.
Dives.	Dev.	Day.

Gipsy dialect.	Indian.	English.
Ratti.	Rate.	Night.
Schero.	Scher.	Head.
Aok.	Auk.	Eye.
Kan.	Kaoun.	Ear.
Nack.	Nack.	Nose.
Muje.	Mu.	Mouth.
Dant.	Dant.	Tooth.
Tschib.	Gib.	Tongue.
Yagué.	Agué.	Fire.

The substantives in the Hindoo and Moldavian Gipsy languages are divided into two genders. Those which end in *i* are feminine, and all the others, without exception, in both languages, are of the masculine gender.

Polgar is the god of marriage of the Hindoos, and most of the male gipsies in Moldavia are called Polgar. The Turks call this class of people Tschingane; and according to Thevenot there is still a people at the mouth of the Indus, which bears this name. According to the testimony of all travellers, the Snderis of Hindostan carry about with them, their implements as smiths; the gipsies of Moldavia have the same custom. Superstition and a propensity to fortune-telling are common to both those people.

The gipsies of Moldavia are looked upon with contempt, and are treated with the greatest severity. Their usual food consists of a small portion of mangelia and salt fish, half rotten, or thrown into the street as unfit for use. Covered with rags and barefoot, they wander about and sleep under miserable tents, mostly in the outskirts of towns and villages. Such of them as commit the slightest crime are beaten on the soles of the feet until the toe-nails drop off. Still the gipsies do not emigrate from Moldavia, because they enjoy here the miserable privilege of having the bells rung at their funerals. This is a privilege of which they cannot be deprived under any pretext. They are the only blacksmiths, farriers, coppersmiths, and horse dealers in Moldavia, and they are divided into the four following casts:

1. The Lingurary, which means spoon-makers; the greatest part of this cast lives in villages, and some few till the land. This is not the most numerous cast.

2. The Ursary, or musicians, have the exclusive privilege of performing on musical instruments. The gipsies of this cast live, as the saying is, by their wits.

3. The Layesch live in tents, as they are not allowed to dwell in houses. They pay a trifling capitation-tax to the Hospodar. This cast is very numerous, and procures its livelihood by telling fortunes and by theft.

4. The Burkasch is a horrible cast. The gipsies of this cast are the real Suderis of Indostan; they live in the woods in summer, and on dunghills in the villages in winter. They are not allowed to enter a house, at least to inhabit it; they are despised and even beaten by the other casts, and are not allowed to shew any resentment, or even to defend themselves. They live on roots, grass, and the flesh of animals that have died of diseases. It has even been asserted that they eat human flesh, and commit incest without scruple. They consist of about six hundred families, and pay a capitation-tax to the Hospodar. They steal every thing which comes in their way, particularly children and horses, the latter of which they disguise by changing their colour. It is not uncommon to meet a troop of gipsies with four or five hundred mares to sell; they have also mules of a superior kind, which they sell for from eight to ten pounds each. The Lajesch are obliged to repair in spring to the banks of the Bessitza, to collect what little gold is found in the sand of that river, and to present it to the Hospodar, who frequently demands more than has been found. The Ursary are employed at all public feasts and solemnities. A Moldavian ball is a curious spectacle. The ladies assemble in a large room after having left the pantoufles, which they wear over their boots or spatterdashes, at the door; they then take their seats on the divan which surrounds the ball-room; the men sit smoking in an adjoining apartment. The Ursary, or musicians, always play the same air. As soon as the ladies have taken off their fur mantles, of which they frequently wear three at a time, they prepare themselves for the dance. Suddenly one of them springs up, turns a little round, makes some movements with the hands and feet, and then squats down on her heels. A second takes her place, and performs the same movements, and the ball continues in this manner until they are all squatted down on their heels; they then all spring up together, seize each other by the hands and dance round in a circle, after which each returns to her place. The men seldom dance. When we were quartered in Jassy, we were at considerable pains to give the Moldavians an idea of the English and French country-dances; the men did not shew the smallest capacity or inclination to profit by our lessons, but some of the ladies, particularly the princess Ghyka, did us honour by their aptness and address. The number of princes and nobility in Moldavia is greater than the land can well maintain, many of them are in the greatest poverty.

I have collected the following historical details relative to Moldavia, from the archive of the hospodars, and manuscripts in the convent of Golia in Jassy.

Dragos or Dragusch, with the surname or title Vates, or perhaps Veda, Woywod, emigrated in 1347 at the head of some nobles and their peasants, from the district of Maramonoch (Maramossy) in Hungary, established himself in Moldavia, and died in 1350, after a reign of two years. Sasso his son gave himself the title of Woywod, and died in 1354.

Lasko, son of the preceding, received into his principality the Bulgarians, who were banished by Murad, and died in 1360. Moldavia paid a tribute to Hungary at this period, and Catholicism was the established religion of the country.

Bogdan the First. The origin of this prince is not precisely ascertained. He styled himself prince, and as he was intimately connected with the Vizier Soliman Lala Schachin, the Turks began at this period to take an interest in the affairs of Moldavia, and the above-mentioned Vizier received from Sultan Murad the title of governor of the European provinces. Bogdan died in 1366.

Peter the First was a libertine, and died in 1372, and was succeeded by his brother.

Roman the First, who conquered the lower part of Bessarabia, and gave it to his son Alexander, who rebelled against him. Roman received the Jews who were banished from Hungary, and died in 1381.

Alexander the First styled himself sovereign prince of Moldavia, and of the countries which extend to the sea, as may be seen by the so called golden bull, which is deposited in the monastery of Pimbrat. He gave permission to the gipsies to establish themselves in Moldavia, and died in 1388. It was at this period that the Wallachian prince Mirtscha submitted to the Turkish yoke.

Stephen the First reigned but a short time, and left two sons, the youngest of whom :

Peter the Second, being beloved by the Moldavians, and aided by the Hungarians, succeeded in dethroning his brother, who called in the Poles to his aid, but was defeated. The brothers at length came to a reconciliation, and as the Turks menaced Moldavia, Peter consented to consider himself as vassal to the kings of Poland, and to pay a yearly tribute.

Roman the Second refused to pay this tribute, and was defeated and taken prisoner by the Poles. His brother

Switrigello, and his uncle Stephen, the brother of Peter, disputed the throne, and the latter proving victorious, imprisoned his adversary, and called himself

Stephen the Second, and reigned two years; on his death Jagello king of Poland restored Roman to liberty, on condition of his paying him a tribute. ~~Roman~~ was succeeded by his son

Alexander the Second, who furnished the Poles with auxiliary troops to attack the Teutonic knights. He soon after broke the treaty of alliance which he formed with the Poles, invaded Podolia; was defeated and died in 1433. He left two sons by two wives.

Elias the First expelled his brother Stephen, and drowned his stepmother. Stephen fled to the Turks, by whose aid he dethroned Elias, who went to Nicpomolick, where the Polish diet was assembled. He promised to hold Moldavia as a fief of Poland, and to pay a yearly tribute; but as Stephen made the same offer, and consented also to repair the damages which Alexander's invasion had occasioned in Podolia, Elias was obliged to content himself with an estate which was given him in Poland; but after having resided there for some time, he became discontented and turbulent, and was imprisoned by order of the Polish government in the castle of Sirad.

Stephen the Third framed a code of laws for the Moldavians, and assisted the Poles in their wars against the Tatars.

Elias, who escaped from his confinement, had recourse to the Hungarians, who enabled him to make head against his brother, and to force him to come to an agreement, by which he got possession of Moldavia and Sostchava, which was at that time the capital of the principality; and Stephen retained Bessarabia, Ackerman, and Kilia.

Elias, on ascending the throne of Moldavia for the second time, went to Leopold, where he acknowledged himself a vassal of Poland. As he was unable to raise the sum which he had promised to furnish for the reparation of the damages occasioned by his father's invasion in Podolia, he gave the district of Tschepin, and the towns Chotin, Tschenin and Chmila, as pledges for the payment of it. He was succeeded by his son

Roman the Third; but Peter, the son of Stephen, inherited the throne of Bessarabia. Peter, aided by John Hunniade, dethroned Roman, and reigned henceforward over the two principalities. Hunniades invaded Bessarabia,

shortly afterwards, and having conquered it without difficulty he advanced towards Moldavia, and demanded that it should pay tribute to Hungary. Casimir, king of Poland, hastened to the assistance of Peter, but demanded in requital that Moldavia should once more become a fief of Poland, and that Sigismund duke of Lithuania should be delivered up to him. Peter promised every thing that was demanded of him, but did not keep his word, as the Hungarians were obliged to quit Moldavia in order to attack the Turks. He died soon after, and was succeeded by

Bogdan the Second, who gave himself out to be the natural son of Alexander the Second. The Poles, who had given an asylum to Maria, the widow of Elias, invaded Moldavia, but soon after made peace, by which Bogdan bound himself to abdicate the throne in favour of prince Alexander as soon as he attained his fifteenth year. Content with this promise, the Poles retired from Moldavia; but Bogdan having assembled all his forces, attacked them with such impetuosity, that they with difficulty repulsed him. In 1451, Cassimir, king of Poland, mediated a peace between Bogdan and Maria, for which he demanded that the former should pay a yearly tribute of 50,000 ducats to Poland. Bogdan was assassinated soon after this event by a person who gave himself out to be the son of a Moldavian prince. This impostor prevailed on Maria and Alexander to espouse his cause, but was glad to escape with his life. At length the Poles enabled

Alexander the Third to ascend the throne. It was during his reign that the Turks conquered Constantinople. As he had seduced some of the daughters of the principal nobility, he was assassinated by their indignant fathers, and was succeeded by his brother

Peter the Fourth, who renewed the oath of allegiance to the Polish government; but on perceiving that Poland was likely to be engaged in a long war with the Teutonic knights, he sent deputies to the Turks, and offered them a yearly tribute of 2,000 ducats, on condition that they would guarantee the Moldavians in the possession of their privileges. This was the origin of the Turkish influence in Moldavia. Peter was succeeded by his son Vlad, who is not reckoned among the sovereigns of Moldavia, as he only reigned over a part of the province, and was taken prisoner by Mathias king of Hungary. Radul, the son of Vlad, built the walls of Jasch or Jassy; but not being able to defend himself against the Hungarians, he fled for suc-

cour to the Turks, to whom he ceded Bessarabia, Kilia, and Belgorod.

Stephen the Fourth, surnamed the Great, withheld the promised tribute from the Turks, and took forcible possession of Kilia; but Bajazeth attacked and defeated him at Tertecliy on the Sireth; however he exacted no other indemnity for the insult offered to him, than the submission of the Hospodar. Stephen waged successful war against the Hungarians, and wrested from them Sclavonia, Bukaresta, Krajova, and Foktschani; he also defeated the Tatars in two general engagements, and took their Chan Hadgi-Guirei prisoner. Bajazeth had appointed Radul the son of Vlad hospodar of Bessarabia; and he made an attempt, with the aid of the Turks, to make himself master of Moldavia, but was completely defeated in 1474, and lost his metropolis, his wife and children, and the immense treasures which he had amassed. Stephen made a present of some Turkish colours to Mathias king of Hungary, who had the vanity to arrogate to himself the honour of this victory, and to style Stephen his general, *sum et suorum gentium ducem*.

The war with the Turks now assumed a serious aspect. Moldavia was laid waste, and notwithstanding the brilliant victory which Stephen gained on the Pruth, he would have been inevitably defeated and despoiled of his possessions, had not the plague broken out in the Turkish army which had landed on the island of Piriusen (at present Beresan) and forced it to retreat. This is the first appearance of the plague in Europe. Stephen availed himself of this opportunity to augment his forces, and took the district of Putna from the Wallachians, conquered Belgorod and the whole of Bessarabia, took down the arms of the hospodar of Bessarabia, and placed his own in their stead, and raised a Moldavian to the dignity of palatine of that country. The title which he assumed on this occasion was, Stephen, by the grace of God, reigning prince of the two Moldavias (Sas and Sos), of Sclavonia, Servia, Bessarabia, &c. &c. a title which devolved to his successors, and which the republic of Venice first acknowledged. The Turks invaded Bessarabia in 1480, and took Kilia and Belgorod, to which latter they gave the name of Akir-men. Stephen solicited the aid of the Poles, who furnished him with three thousand auxiliary troops, which, however, were not sufficient to enable him to recover his losses.

At this period Casimir sent an army against the Tatars,

under the command of his third son John Albert; but as the Polish general was a declared enemy of Stephen, he invaded Moldavia, and besieged the Hospodar in his capital city Sostehowa in the Buckowina. Stephen not only sustained a long siege, but finally defeated the besieging army, and thus freed Moldavia for ever from the hostile attacks of Poland. Albrecht concluded a treaty with his brothers Vladislav duke of Bohemia, and Alexander duke of Lithuania, by which the contracting parties bound themselves to keep on foot an army sufficiently numerous to enable them to divide the States of Stephen amongst them; however, the disunion of the brothers rendered their measures abortive, and Albrecht was obliged to conclude peace. Shortly after this event Stephen died, admired by his enemies, and beloved and lamented by his subjects. He was succeeded by his son

Bogdan the Third, who waged war against the Poles, on account of the king of Poland having in an insulting manner refused to give him his sister Elizabeth in marriage. He consented at the same time, that Moldavia should become a fief of Turkey, and bound himself to pay the Porte a yearly tribute of four thousand gold dollars, forty mares in foal, and twenty trained falcons. He invaded Podolia in the year 1509, but was forced to retreat with considerable loss, and to conclude a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, with the Poles, against his former allies the Turks.

Stephen the Fifth reigned but a short time. During his reign a colony of Spanish Jews obtained a settlement in Moldavia. These Jews still retain the Spanish language, and their books are written in Spanish with Hebrew characters.

John Peter, called also Pietro Woyevoda, was unsuccessful in his wars against the Poles. He was taken prisoner by the Hungarians, delivered up by them to the Turks, who banished him to Pera, and created his brother prince of Moldavia.

Stephen the Sixth was assassinated soon after his accession to the throne, and Pietro Woyevoda had recovered his lost dignity; but as he might have made himself odious to the nation, the nobles addressed themselves to the king of Poland to give them a sovereign, in consequence of which Alexander the Fourth was placed on the throne by a Polish army, under the command of general Siniawsky. The Porte made hostile preparations in favour of Peter, and the nobles solicited the aid of the emperor Charles the

Fifth, and of Ferdinand king of Hungary; but the Turks defeated and beheaded Alexander, and confirmed their former appointment of Peter, who died in the year 1556, soon after his second elevation to the throne.

Elias the Second, who was son of the preceding, was guilty of such cruelties that he no longer considered himself in safety amongst his subjects, and having collected all the treasures which he could amass, he fled to Constantinople, renounced the christian faith, and was killed in a popular tumult.

Stephen the Seventh was assassinated by his own subjects.

Alexander the Fifth was deposed, on account of his tyrannical conduct, by Albert Lasky, palatine of Siradin, who nominated in his stead

John Heraclitus, a zealous catholic, who did all in his power to establish the catholic religion in his dominions, and for this purpose built two churches in Haslew, the ruins of which are still discernible; his nomination was confirmed by the Porte, and he was the first hospodar who was solemnly crowned; but as he made himself odious to his subjects, the Poles endeavoured to effectuate the nomination of Demetrius Vischnewetzky, who entered Moldavia for the purpose of having his election confirmed, but was made prisoner, and sent to Constantinople. The Moldavians now elected

Stephen the Eighth, who caused John Heraclitus to be murdered on his return to Sostehowa from the place of his banishment.

Bogdan the Fourth ascended the throne of Moldavia in 1572, but excited the jealousy and hatred of his subjects, by appointing Poles to the principal places of honour and emolument. The nobles wrote to John Ivonius, the son of Stephen the Seventh, who had considerable influence in the Turkish government, and offered, not only to make him their sovereign, but to deliver up to him their prince, Bogdan, and his son Peter. Ivonius entered Moldavia at the head of 20,000 Turks, and Bogdan fled into Poland, where he died in the greatest misery.

John Ivonius was of the Mahometan religion; but as he refused to pay to the Porte the double tribute which he had promised, the Turks entered Moldavia, put Turkish garrisons in the fortified places, deposed Ivonius, and appointed in his stead

Janikula, who was subdued and beheaded by Stephen

Battery; after whose death Moldavia was governed by Sigismund Battery, prince of Transylvania. Bessarabia, which also belonged to him, was near being delivered into the hands of the Turks by the treachery of a person of the name of Aaron, but the vigilance of the governor, Stephen Radul, preserved the province, and Battery, in return for this service, created him hospodar of Moldavia, under the title of

Stephen the Ninth. The Poles, under the command of Zamoisky, overran Moldavia, and placed Jeremiah Mohila on the throne, on condition of his consenting to hold the country as a fief of Poland. The Tatars forced the Poles to retreat; but as Zamoisky learned that Sigismund prince of Transylvania, was making warlike preparations in favour of Stephen, he attacked and defeated him, and sent him to Poland, where he was impaled in 1595, although the Emperor and Pope interfered in his behalf.

Sigismund conquered Transylvania, and made it a present to his brother, who was deposed and exiled by Michael palatine of Wallachia, who pushed his conquests as far as Moldavia, and forced the three brothers, Mohila, Simeon, and Jeremiah to fly; but the heroic Zamoisky defeated Michael, received the thanks of his nation by the decree of the Polish diet, and restored to the throne of Moldavia

Jeremiah Mohila, who reigned until the year 1609.

Constantine, his son, reigned only a few months, as the Porte raised

Stephen the Tenth, surnamed Tomtschay, in 1612, to the dignity of Hospodar. John and Stephen Potozky, two Polish generals, endeavoured in vain to re-establish Constantine; they were defeated by the Turks, and Stephen Potozky and Constantine were made prisoners, and sent to Constantinople, where they died in the greatest penury. However, the Poles succeeded by their intrigues in deposing Stephen, in whose stead

Caspar Gratiani, an Italian, was appointed by the Turks. Caspar discovered to the Poles the conspiracy of Bethlehem Gabor, and his alliance with the Turks. The Turks forced him to fly for refuge to the Polish camp, and the war broke out in 1620; but as the Turks were unable to take the fortified camp of the Poles, peace was concluded in 1621, by which the latter renounced all farther claims on Moldavia. From this period the fate of Moldavia was irrevocably united with that of the Porte, and the hospodars were appointed and deposed as it suited the policy or caprice of the Turkish government, and have ever since been obliged to purchase

not only their nomination, but the continuance of their dignity.

Petreczejus repaid his benefactors with ingratitude, and united himself with the Cossacks under the command of Doroschschenko; but the Sultan took a dreadful vengeance, by ordering the Cossacks to be cut to pieces, and the Moldavian prince to be strangled. He was succeeded by

Stephen the Eleventh, Dabiza, the last Moldavian who was raised to the dignity of hospodar. The succeeding hospodars were mostly Greeks by birth.

The Turks forced the Moldavians to dismiss their troops, and to desist from the working of their mines, which are tolerably rich in gold, silver, copper, and iron. However, this law is in some places secretly evaded, and I know two Moldavian noblemen who have derived considerable wealth from their mines. Gold is found in the neighbourhood of Sotschawa and Niemsche; silver near the monastery of Galata; and rock salt in the northern part of the province. The salt pits are called in Moldavian "Ockna," which means a window or a hole.

It would be uninteresting to enumerate the different hospodars who have reigned in Moldavia, since the Turks have possessed uncontrolled sway in that country. They obtain their elevation by money and intrigues, and during their precarious and frequently short-lived reign, their principal and only policy is to oppress and plunder their subjects. I shall therefore say a few words relative to the country itself.

The mountains in Moldavia are a continuation of the Carpathian mountains in Transylvania, which the Slavonians formerly called (Baby Gory) or Women's Mountains. The chain which traverses Moldavia and Wallachia is united with mount Caucasus, and its highest summit is called mount Elbrus, on the frontiers of Georgia and the Cuban. The mountains in Moldavia are covered with a dark-green moss and the exhalations from them are impregnated with sulphur. In the vallies one frequently meets with large tracts which are completely covered with saltpetre. On the 26th of March 1790, I observed that the whole of the valley between Formosa and the Convents was covered with this substance; during the night three violent shocks of an earthquake were felt, and the following day the saltpetre had wholly disappeared, and the summits of the mountains, which the day before were clearly visible, were covered with dusky vapours. The soil at the

foot of the mountains is an ochreous clay, and the waters of the lakes contain vitriol; but at Straka, about 45 verss from Jassy, the water is impregnated with sulphur.

Mustapha the Second was well aware that effeminacy, ignorance, and superstition are the surest supports of despotism, and the cankers of the moral character; he therefore exerted all his efforts to create amongst the Moldavians, the artificial wants of voluptuousness, and he was powerfully aided in the execution of his purpose, by the patriarchs, who had an equal interest with him in destroying the mental energies of the Moldavians. It must be confessed that their efforts have been attended with the most complete success, for every thing in Moldavia breathes Asiatic indolence and luxury. The smallness of the tribute which they pay to the Turks induces them to prefer the government of Turkey to that of any other nation, which, from regard to their real interests, would force them to be industrious. They dislike the Russians, although they have been treated by them with the greatest lenity, and were always paid ready money for the provisions which the Russian army consumed during its stay in Moldavia. But their dread of the Russian arms is so great, that the word Moskal or Russian is sufficient to disperse an assembled troop of Moldavians. I have met with but a few priests, and not more than half a dozen noblemen in this country who had the smallest smattering of knowledge, the former spoke Latin, and the latter bad French. The Greeks, who first began to establish themselves in this country, during the reign of Mauro Cordato the elder, have preserved their own dialect, which is called the Roman language. Notwithstanding the most unwearied researches, I have been only able to discover a single manuscript in Moldavia; relative to the history of the country. It was in the possession of the Logafeth, and contained the lives of the last ten hospodars, and an account of the intrigues which had raised them to power or plunged them in obscurity. It is written in the most miserable manner, but is looked upon by the possessor of it, as a literary treasure. There are no libraries here, and no books of any kind, with the exception of a few legends and popular tales. The last hospodar of the family of Mauro Cordato, who fled into Russia at the breaking out of the war, was possessed of a well chosen library of French authors, which he took with him to Elizabethgrad. He was a well-informed man, and spoke French, Italian, and German

with tolerable fluency; it is to him I am indebted for most of the details which I now communicate to the public.

The language of the Moldavians is a mixture of Latin, Italian, Russian, and Slavonian words. Most of the verbs and adverbs are derived from the Latin; the substantives and adjectives are chiefly taken from the Italian and Slavonian languages. It contains words, however, which are not to be found in any other language, viz. *Powten*, what do you mean? what do you say? *Lingur*, a spoon; *Dorsto* and *Aisto*, the piece of wood which the water-carriers carry on their shoulders, and from which they suspend their buckets. There are some few German and Greek words in this language. The characters in which it is written are Slavonian, and the middle or last letter of the word is sometimes put over the word itself. There are also some letters whose pronunciation is varied by having a stroke or dash over them, as is the case in the Polish language. It is extremely difficult to pronounce Moldavian accurately, as the pronunciation varies incessantly, and seems not to be established by any rules; for instance, some say *Venikotsch*, others *Venauikotz*, some *Pozzintel*, others *Pokkinoel*. All words which are derived from the Latin, change their *H* into *G*, as *Trahe*, draw, is written *Trage*.

The principal traits in the character of the Moldavians are avarice, pride, and indolence. Their music and dances have been minutely described by Sulzer, Carra, and Tott, but the last is not always to be depended on. Their dress is that of the 13th and 14th centuries, and is a mixture of the Jewish, Chinese, and Turkish costumes. From the Jews they have the calotte, or leather cap, which, like the Jews, they never take off. The nobles have the exclusive privilege of letting their beards grow, and the common people wear mustachoes, in imitation of the Turks and Chinese, from whom they have also adopted the large breeches, and loose upper garment. Their physiognomy is a mixture of the abovementioned three people. In Jassy one is led to suppose that the Moldavians have no kind of occupation, for the coffee-houses, inns, and taverns are constantly full, young gipsies sing and play there, and the days and nights seem to be wholly consecrated to Bacchus and Venus. The Moldavians descend chiefly from the Mæsiens, Dardaniens, and Thracians. They have several Slavonian customs, but neither these, nor the words of Slavonian origin which are to be met with in their language, prove them to be of Slavonian descent. Several of the nobles have the folly of adopting

the names of families which were celebrated in the Greek empire, and have the still greater folly of asserting, that they are lineally descended from those families.

Before the use of bells was known in Moldavia, the hours were marked by striking a board with a stick, as is the custom to the present day in several Russian villages. Bells are at present in general use in Moldavia; but the old custom of beating the hours is still preserved; the board on which they are beaten is called *Tocca*, and when this office is vacant, the villagers, or inhabitants of the cities, assemble to decide on the talents of the candidates.

Bilious fevers are generally mortal here, as the physicians do not know how to treat them; purgatives are found to be most efficacious. The physicians are, as I have already observed, mostly Greeks, Jews, and women; they are seldom consulted, until the priest has given up all hopes of the patient's recovery.

A Jewish physician assured me, that he cured bilious fevers with the smoke and a decoction of *Lepidium rurale*. Corrosive sublimate is made use of in the quartidian fever, which follows an attack of a putrid fever; the usual dose is half a grain morning and evening, after which the patient is obliged to drink elder tea.

The honours paid to the dead are probably of Thracian origin, and somewhat resemble the wakes which are customary in different parts of Europe. My host, who was a man of considerable importance died, during my residence in Jassy. The moment his decease was announced, the court-yard was illuminated with an immense number of lamps; gipsies, called in Moldavian *Kazivelos*, of the cast of Ursary, were hired to entertain the company which had assembled on the occasion, with singing and dancing; the court-yard resounded with the songs of the gipsies, and with the cries of the multitude which thronged to the house from all parts of the city. The widow sat in the room in which the deceased lay, with dishevelled hair, and wept and lamented as if she was frantic. The ceremony began about three o'clock in the afternoon, and after some hours had been spent in singing and howling, part of the company played a game called *Ligatura*, which resembles the children's play of hide the slipper; eight persons sit on the ground in a circle, and cover their knees with a large skin, the ninth stands in the middle with a twisted handkerchief, with which he strikes one of the persons in the ring, who endeavours to wrest the handkerchief out of his hand, and

passes it under the skin to one of his neighbours; if he do not succeed in getting possession of the handkerchief, the company cry out *Mischka* or bear. This game was continued until the break of the following day, and was incessantly accompanied with the confused noise of singing, dancing, and howling. The deceased was then dressed in his best attire, and carried on a bed through the principal streets to a church, where he was received by the priests. After the usual prayers had been read over the body it was laid in a coffin, which was not covered until one of the priests had poured wine on the body in the form of a cross, and then spread some earth on it in the same form. After these ceremonies were performed, the coffin was covered, and laid in the earth.

A singular ceremony is observed by the common people, particularly in the villages. They dig up the dead after they have been three years interred, collect the bones and put them into a sack, after which they are pounded fine and thrown back into the graves from which they have been dug, together with the sacks in which they are contained. I have been at considerable pains to ascertain the motive or origin of this ceremony, but have never been able to obtain any satisfactory information on the subject. The priests were either unable or unwilling to inform me of the cause of it; the common people know no other reason for it, than that their fathers have done so before them, and the nobles answer, when they are questioned on the subject, "It is the distinction between us and the vulgar multitude."

The gothic architecture with doric ornaments is the most prevalent. The houses are large clumsy edifices; those in the towns are built of stone, or stone and wood, and in the villages they are frequently only of earth and clay. The houses have all long corridors, into which each chamber has a door; it is very seldom that the rooms have any immediate communication with each other. The furniture of these rooms generally consists of a divan; chairs and tables are considered wholly superfluous. Those who have seen one house in Moldavia may form a tolerable accurate idea of all the others. Some of the Boyards are descended from Italian, Armenian, and Moldavian families, but most of them are of Greek origin. The family of Millot alone was originally French. The number of princes here is almost incredible, as the moment an inhabitant of Moldavia is raised to the dignity of hospodar, all his relations take the title of prince. They are extremely proud of their assumed dignity,

many of them illustrate their genealogical trees with the names of kings and emperors, and a considerable number pretend to be descended from the family of Paleologus.

Since the Turks have obtained the sovereignty of this country, the inhabitants have adopted many of their customs; particularly the use of divans, the titles of public officers, the custom of smoking tobacco, of wearing slippers over their boots, and of shutting up the women. This last custom was not very scrupulously observed during the last war between the Russians and Turks; as prince Potemkin invited to his assemblies all the Moldavian ladies of distinction, and as it may be supposed that the jealousy of the Moldavian nobles yielded to the suggestions of fear, their wives and daughters were obliged to accept of the invitations which were given them. The gardens here are all laid out in the Turkish taste, and generally consist of clumps of fruit and other trees planted without any kind of order, and surrounded with hedges of woodbine and sweet pea. The cuscuta is more abundant here than in any other country. The fruits are delicious, but are seldom left to grow ripe. The wine would be of an excellent quality if it were treated properly, but the Moldavians pay no attention whatever to the aspect in which they plant their vines, and the pestilential impurity of their cellars must have a very pernicious effect on the wines, all of which contain calcareous particles, as may be seen by the white sediment which they deposit, when a few drops are poured on the table and left to dry.

The Moldavians transplant their vines every three years, and manure them with cow-dung; which they lay at a certain distance from the roots, and water them regularly. By this mode of proceeding, the manure becomes decomposed in its passage through the water, and nourishes the roots without imparting any disagreeable taste to the grapes.

The vineyards are always planted in low grounds, where water may be easily obtained, or where the soil itself is moist. The usual mode of pressing the grapes is wholly unknown here. The Moldavian wines are generally rather sour, and are produced from six different kinds of grapes: 1. *Vitis vulpina*, in Moldavian Pomo jepurlé, which is a deep purple; 2. *Vitis moschata*, the muscadel grape, in Moldavian Pomo bossjock: 3. *Vitis labrusca*, in Moldavian Pomo passeriaska, or sparrow grape: 4. *Vitis fructu minore albo*, the common grape, or Raisin des filles of the French, in Moldavian Pomo feti: 5. *Vitis fructu magno rotundo et*

nigro, in Moldavian Pomo tivda : 6. Vitis fructu magno et conuleos, Moldavian Pomo koarno.

The soil of Moldavia is, in general, extremely fertile, and if, instead of planting whole fields with kukerusa, as is the custom, they were sowed with wheat or rye, the harvest would render twenty-fold. The meadows produce grass in such abundance, and of such an excellent quality, that diseased cattle recover in them in a few days, as we observed by the horses, camels, sheep, and oxen which we had for the use of the army.

Amongst the hospodars of latter times were three brothers of the name of Draco, one of whom was hanged by the Turks; the second, who was interpreter of the Porte, was sent to the Polish confederates, but not having succeeded in his mission, he was beheaded by order of the Turkish government on his return. The third, Michael Draco, who was hospodar, is so revered by the Moldavians and Greeks, that when they speak of him, they bow their heads, cross their arms on their breasts, and say, "that was a man!"

One of this family assured me, in the most solemn manner, that he was descended in a direct line from Jason, the leader of the Argonauts, and that he could prove his descent satisfactorily. There is not a single mud-house in Jassy.

Dghika and Mauro Cordato, the latter of whom was the only well-informed man in Moldavia, drew on themselves the hatred of the Porte, by a too scrupulous observance of the treaty of Kamardgy. The seventh article of that treaty stipulated that no Turk should enter the principality of Moldavia, without a passport signed by the hospodar. Dghika stationed guards on the frontiers to arrest the Turks who should endeavour to enter the country clandestinely, and Mauro Cordato followed in his footsteps. It was the latter who built the bridges which unite Jassy with its suburbs; he at present lives in Elizabethgrad, whither he fled with all his treasures.

I shall now say a few words relative to the coins of Turkey. The lion dollar is a Venetian coin, and was in circulation in Constantinople before it came into the possession of the Turks, and before they began to coin money. Piaster is a Spanish, and Asper, a Greek coin. The following are the real coins of Turkey :

as the moment **ALVER COINS OF TURKEY.**
 dignity of hospoda. Iky-lyck, is worth eighty para's, or 1
 They are an extreme, or four shillings English.

2. Altmys-lyck ; 60 parahts or 90 copecks, or three shillings English.*
3. Byr-krus, or lion dollar ; 40 parahts or 60 copecks, or two shillings English.
4. Zol-ota ; 30 parahts or 45 copecks, or one shilling and sixpence English.
5. Jarym-lyck ; 20 parahts or 30 copecks, or one shilling English.
6. Onbes-lyck ; 15 parahts or 22½ copecks, or nine-pence English.
7. On-lyck or Rubb ; 10 parahts or 15 copecks, or six-pence English.
8. Bess-lyck ; 5 parahts or 7½ copecks, or three pence English.
9. Parah ; three aspers or 1½ copeck, or half a farthing English.
10. Asper ; half a copeck.

GOLD COINS.

1. Rubie ; 60 parahts or 90 copecks, or three shillings English.
2. Zynderly ; 105 parahts or one ruble fifty-seven copecks and half, or about five shillings and three-pence English.
3. Stambul, the first piece of money which was coined by the Turks, after the conquest of Constantinople, is worth 100 parahts, or two rubles 25 copecks, or about seven shillings and sixpence English.
4. Fundukly ; 5 Byr-krus, or about ten shillings English.
5. Medar or Sultanin ; 110 parahts, or about five shillings and sixpence English.*

On all the above-mentioned coins, the name of the Sultan and the value of the coin are stamped on one side, and the adopted name of the Sultan, the word *Zara*, and the year of the Hegyra in which the piece was coined, on the other.

Schulz is very incorrect in his *History of the Turkish Revenues and Expenditure*. The former is received in six public offices, each of which has its particular department. The occasional or indirect contributions frequently amount

* In the above calculation the Russian ruble has been estimated at three shillings English, but according to the present rate of exchange, it amounts to little more than two shillings.

to as much and sometimes to more than those which are established by law.

The first office may be called the treasury or general audit office of Turkey, as all the other offices are obliged to send in their accounts to it to be audited. The chief of it is the Defterdar Pacha, or treasurer general, who has a number of inferior Defterdars under him, in the different provinces to collect the revenues.

The second office receives the contributions which are levied on certain occasions, particularly in time of war, and also the taxes which certain provinces are bound to pay.

The third office receives the sums which are destined for the private purse of the Sultan, and pays the expenditure of his household. The chief of it bears the title of Chasnadyr. All confiscations belong to this department.

The fourth office receives the tribute which is destined to be sent to Mecca, and which is employed in repairing and beautifying Constantinople.

The fifth office receives the taxes of all the conquered provinces which do not pay them into the office of the Defterdar Pacha. To this belong the sums which are paid by the Pachas, Zaims, Beys, and Timariots. The amount of this branch of the revenue cannot be ascertained, as the value of the coins in the different provinces is very various. The Zaims, Beys, and Timariots are possessors of lands, which have been granted them by the crown. Most of these lands are granted for life, some for a certain number of years, and very few are hereditary.

Finally, the sixth office receives all the contributions and taxes which are paid in kind, such as wood, hemp, wheat, oats, hay, honey, butter, tallow, &c.

All large sums are reckoned in Turkey by purses, in Turkish pungha. A purse amounts, as I have already observed, to about fifty pounds English.

The legitimate revenues of the Turkish empire are extremely insignificant, in proportion to the extent and natural fertility of the provinces of which it is composed. Were it inhabited by a civilized commercial nation, which gave a due encouragement to industry, there is no doubt but its revenues would soon become four times greater than they are at present; but under the iron yoke of despotism the subjects are impoverished without proportionably enriching the government.

I shall now give a statement of the revenues and expenditure of the Turkish empire, which I believe may be depended on, although I cannot altogether warrant its accuracy. The documents from which the following statements are taken, were in the possession of the Defterdar Pacha and fell into my hands after the battle of Rymnick.

REVENUES.

FIRST OFFICE. •

	Paises.	Aspers.
In the hands of Muha Visi Evel, the first officer under the Defterdar, from different sources — — •	33,010½	4,666
Kara Muha Visi receives the capitation of all those who are not Mussulmen	5,103	27,419
Mescoiffat receives certain contributions from particular cities — —	2,647½	
Muha Visi Evel receives the tributes of some Timariots — —	1,970½	1,557
Maden Muhatasi receives the products of the mines, in Turkish Maden, and the customs of Smyrna, Chio, Gallipoli, Bursa, Smit, and Constantinople —	18,003	4,989
Bursa Muhatasi, receiver of the rents of the Bursa's lands, houses, &c. —	90	39,147
Mendgenick Muhatasi, receiver of the tributes which are paid by the Zaims and by some Timariots — —	467	6,509
Stambul Muhatasi is the receiver of the taxes paid by the inhabitants of Constantinople — — •	1,554½	12,803
Acklonia Muhatasi, receiver of the duties in the country of Kolo, near Salonichi — — —	245	15,896
Egripos Muhatasi, receiver of the taxes in Negropont — —	34	334
Kislar Muhatasi, receiver of the rents of the crown-lands, that is, of those estates in the conquered provinces, which the Sultans have kept for themselves	1,479½	35,014
Anadoly Muhatasi, tax collector in Natolia — — —	5½	1 58
Didedeula Muhatasi, receiver of certain incidental contributions, which, one year with another, amount to —	60	

	Paises.	Asper.
Kojum Muhatasi receives the tribute to which the sheep are subject; an asper is paid yearly for each sheep, and the person who neglects to announce when his sheep has yeaned is liable to corporal punishment, and to a penalty of two sheep; this tax amounts to	320	20,996
The Pacha of Bassora pays to the Porte yearly for the employments which he holds	600	
Sum total of the first office	65,584	169,379

SECOND OFFICE.

This office is called the treasury of Adrianople; it receives the taxes, called in Turkish Mansul, which are paid by the following provinces:

From Natolia	862	60
From Romelia	902	
From Welestin, Aladschia, and Isar lands, which are situated twenty miles from Constantinople	21	31,211
From Bosnia, Kamlscha, Eger, &c.	310	
Besides the above-mentioned tax, Natolia is obliged to pay yearly to the boatmen of the Seraglio, the sum of	25	
Sum total	2,120	31,271

THIRD OFFICE.

Cairo pays 600,000 sultanins in gold, and Ragusa 12,500 Venetian sequins, which together make

Transylvania, Wallachia, and Moldavia.	4,144½	14,000
	1,113	
Sum total	5,257½	

The first office is obliged to furnish to this, every thing which is necessary for the Seraglio in clothing, wool, silk, horses, &c.

FOURTH OFFICE

Aremin Monabesi receives the taxes which are levied to defray the expenses of repairing and beautifying the metropolis, and these amount to — —

Aremin Muhatasi receives the duties to which black cattle, &c. are subject 950½

Total —

Purses.

Aspers.

370

9,537

950½

48

1,320½

9,585

FIFTH OFFICE.

All the Pachalis are obliged to pay the duties to which they are subject into this office, besides the duties or contributions which belong immediately to the other four departments. Those duties amount to — — —

Total —

9,340½

16,000

9,340½

16,000

SIXTH OFFICE.

This office receives the contributions in kind, and reserves them for the following destinations:

FOR THE ARSENAL.

From Cairo, 1,000 quintals of hemp, called in Turkish Kalafat; 200 flasks of linseed oil, (Turkish Berir en-Turi); 2,000 pieces of linen, each piece consisting of 60 ells, and 140 quintals of twine or packthread (in Turkish Syrit).

From Sanakow on the Black sea, 113 quintals of iron in bars (Turkish Dermir-dgybuck).

From Sifonichi, 4,012 yards of coarse cloth from the manufactory of Beghick.

From Kara and Boga, two sandschacks or governments on the Dnieper, 1,600 trees of a given length and thickness.

From Batava, Boli, and Ismit, 3,558 pieces of timber prepared and seasoned for ship-building.

From D-awich, 6,000 quintals of hemp, and 4,000 wooden hammers for ship carpenters.

From Media and Salmakugick, 6,700 lasts of timber, the last at five quintals.

Media also furnishes 3,000 pieces of timber seasoned for ship-building.

From Isar, 5,000 painted oars (in Turkish Tioreck).

From Athens and the surrounding country, 5,000 yards of coarse cloth.

From Sultan i Isar, 600 quintals of pitch and tar.

CAMPENHAUSEN.]

From Kuga Ely, 25,790 planks of a given size and quality.

FOR THE SERAGLIO.

From Cairo, 36,000 measures of rice, the measure estimated at about a bushel and a quarter English; 45,612 okas of sugar (in Turkish Selker), the oka contains about three pounds; 2,000 measures of peas (in Turkish Baset), the size of the measure is fixed by government; 2,600 measures of lentils, (in Turkish Mejdgemeck); 250 okas of pepper, (in Turkish Biber); 370 okas of cinnamon, (in Turkish Tentschick); 190 okas of ginger, (in Turkish Tschintschefin); 250 okas of cassia; 990 okas of tin, to tin the kitchen utensils; 60 okas of senna; 1,200 of macaroni, (in Turkish Fidé), which is remarkable for the excellence of its quality; 400 okas of roots and spices of different kinds, particularly Indian pepper; 300 okas of Peruvian bark; 800 okas of tamarinds, of which the Turks are extremely fond.

From Gesau Kadelyck, 1,200 measures of peas; 1,600 okas of millet and groats; and 820 okas of liquorice.

From Borlo, 230 okas of saffron.

From Walluchia, 1,200 okas of yellow wax; the process of bleaching wax is unknown to the Turks; 15,000 okas of honey; 500 quintals of salt, and 170 okas of rock salt for the horses of the Sultan.

From Beleegy, 6,690 okas of yellow wax.

From Moldavia, 9,230 okas of yellow wax; and 12,000 okas of honey in jars.

From Emsim near Trebisond, 3,000 okas of yellow wax.

From Madin Esia Seregy, 1,670 okas of yellow wax.

From Ackioly, 3,000 measures of salt, and 520 okas of rock salt.

From Bursa, 3,500 measures of wheat; 2,000 okas of a species of wheat, which the Turks call Tarano; a kind of sour paste is made of it, which is left to dry, and either eaten in this manner or diluted with water.

From Jambol, 30 hogsheads of a kind of fruit which is called Amber-barassy. I have never seen it fresh, but when it is dried it resembles the medlar in appearance, but not in taste. Jambol also furnishes 15 hogsheads of dried plums to make sherbet.

From Cogiair near Bursa, 2,000 measures of salt; 1,000 tons of ice and snow from mount Olympus.

From Osmanyek, 100 pipes of pickled salmon.

From Stangyoya, 25 pipes of lemon juice, and 12,000 lemons.

From Bursa, 13 pipes of balsam, 8,000 fresh pomegranates, and 12,000 limes; 20 barrels of sharp, and 10 of common vinegar; 40 barrels of unripe grapes, which being pressed, give a juice which the Turks call Agrest.

From Bursa and Tekyr-daghé, 209,000 fowls.

From Gallipoli, 5,000 melons.

From Bisan, 6,000 onions.

Besides the abovementioned articles, this office receives from different parts, two millions of different kinds of eggs; 405,898 measures of barley, and 814,742 hundred weight of straw, and other articles which it is unnecessary to particularize.

The different sums which are paid into the abovementioned five offices, added together, amount to 4,175,312 pounds sterling; which is a very inconsiderable sum, in comparison with the extent and resources of the Turkish empire, and would be insufficient to defray the expences of a regular administration; but as the pay of the army, and the salaries of the civil officers of the state are very small, they have a tacit permission from the government to plunder the subjects in every manner that can be devised. The articles which are delivered in kind into the sixth office, are fully sufficient to supply the wants of the household; thus, when the casual sources of revenue, such as confiscations, the inheritance of strangled pachas, hospodars, &c. are taken into account, it is an easy matter for each Sultan to amass a considerable treasure. I shall now proceed to the expenditure of the state.

The expenditure of the Turkish government is as follows:

	Purses.	Aspers.
To the Janissaries (Jenkitshéry)	4,007½	17,292
To the Azam'oglans, or children who are educated in the Seraglio, to enter as cadets into the army, or to wait on the person of the Sultan	—	112
To the Boslanys or gardeners	—	179
To the Gebegys and Tobegis, servants in the seraglio	—	331½
To the Baltagys and Kalvagys, servants in the old seraglio	—	50
To the cabinet makers and waggoners	—	19
To the Sarakys or grooms	—	150
To the cooks, bakers, &c. (Murdbackemen-dscharlans)	—	70

	Purses.	Aspers.
To the persons who are appointed to erect tents (Garder meterly) —	31	
To the manufacturers of pikes, arrows, and shields (Sanats) — —	21	3,007
To the tailors — —	12½	
To the standard bearers (Sandschaly durlars) — —	15	
To the water-carriers of the divan (Sakkis) — —	;	12,339
To the overseers of the arsenal —	136	
To the Cinglas, or companions of the Sultan —	79	
To the judge-advocates of the army (Kadilcskers) — —	80	
To the Sengy Agalery and the Mutaferaga, persons whose duty is to wait on the females in the interior of the seraglio —	200	86
To the Mukarekarans, or cleaners of the chambers — —	2	670
To the Tefdar Oda Kariblary, or secretaries of the chambers — —		57,896
To the Rufet Agalary, or quartermasters —	35	
To the Jerys Agalarys and Agas Utakarys, or inferior quartermasters —	32	
To the Divanys Katablarys, or secretaries of the divan — —	6	12,600
To the Dschiaussys — —	80	70
To the Azna Sayr Settlers who serve in the treasury — —	8	16,200
To the physicians of the Sultan —	12½	3,827
To the Messins, or persons appointed to announce to the seraglio when the huan calls to prayers — —		49,106
To the Dis Chasna Dalarys, or stewards of the crown lands in the provinces —	14	79
To the Poycks, inferior servants —	1	
To the Ege Dugan Dschalery —	10	15,020
To the Mairmats, or engineers —	10	
To the Jadi Eschitnerys, or Jewish physicians of the seraglio; (the physicians of the Sultan are always Turks) —		36,019
To the privates of the cavalry, or Sipahis — — —	3,514½	419

	Purses.	Aspers.
To the Kapidgi's, in number 1900	130½	5,000
To the Dschonglans of the seraglio	160	
To the Mutbak Emini, who is appointed to keep the register and journal of the seraglio	181½	1,805
To the inspectors of hay for the Sultan's horses, (Arpa Emini)	300	
To the Stambul Agary, or inspectors of wood in Constantinople	102½	7,090
To the Pekimil Emini, or biscuit-maker of the seraglio	102½	7,090
Sum destined to keeping the castle of Asak in repair	60	4,400
To support the foundry in Tophana	55½	3,900
For the annual presents to Mecca, and the travelling expences of him who is charged with them	550	
For cloth to make scarps of honour for the Janissaries who have distinguished themselves	470	
For meat for the Janissaries	695	6,030
To the persons who are appointed to pray for the Sultan	110	30,800
To the garrisons in Natolia and Romania	1,560	47,042
To the seraglio in Adrianople	145	
To the Beys on the coast; the Teuter-Sta, the Tartar-Sta, the Sultani galga, the Novadin of the Tartars, and the Beys in Circassia	680	1,200
To the inspectors of rice and salt, and to the so called inspectors of the Levant	312	
To those who are appointed to register and deliver the sheep to the office destined to receive them	130	206
For the wardrobe of the Sultan	100	
The females of the seraglio have a fixed income, which is received in an office appointed expressly for this purpose.		
To the ambassadors at foreign courts for furs, &c. &c.	50	

	Purses.	Aspers.
To the officers and soldiers who serve in the fleet — —	800	17,965
Presents of the Sultan at the feast of Beyram — —	1000	
Presents on the birth of a child of the Sultan — —	500	
Salary and annual presents to the Mufti — —	500	
For the imperial chapel — —	25	10,000
For pipes, tobacco, &c. &c. — —	5	
To the person who makes the turban of the Sultan — —	5	1000
To him who has the charge of the Sultan's turban — —	2	300
To the keeper of the hawks, and his assistants — —	6	
To the overseer of the hounds and his assistants — —	4	12,000
To the person who presents pipes and coffee to the Sultan — —	6	17,900
Extraordinary expenses — —	30	
	18,411	300,670

Which makes about 920,850 pounds, sterling.

I have given a faithful translation of the statements which fell into my hands; but it will be perceived, that in that of the expences of the state, some important articles have been omitted; but even if these were taken into account, the income would still be considerably greater than the expenditure, and consequently, the Turkish treasury might, in the space of a few years, become the richest in the world; still there is always a scarcity of money in Turkey, and this circumstance has occasioned most of the revolts which have taken place in the metropolis, and in the provinces. The misplaced parsimony of the sovereign, the constant dilapidations in every branch of the revenue, and the iron hand of despotism, which destroys all industry and commerce, have caused the decline, and will, probably, soon be productive of the annihilation of a state; which possesses the most fertile countries in Europe, Asia, and Africa.

END OF CAMPENHAUSEN'S TRAVELS.

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ANALYSES

OF NEW

WORKS OF VOYAGES AND TRAVELS,

LATELY PUBLISHED IN LONDON

1 *Tour through Holland, along the right and left Banks of the Rhine, to the South of Germany, in the Summer and Autumn of 1806. By SIR JOHN CARR, of the Hon. Society of the Middle Temple; Author of the Stranger in Ireland; a Northern Summer, or a Tour round the Baltic, &c. &c. One Volume quarto, pp. 468, price 2l. 2s. LONDON, PHILLIPS.*

SIR John Carr certainly ranks amongst the most indefatigable, as well as the most successful, of modern tourists. Every year produces some novelty, as the result of his peregrinations; and each of his new productions appears to be as eagerly sought after as that which has preceded it. A tour made by an Englishman through the country of a belligerent power, where the very name of England is, by the crafty policy of Napoleon, proscribed, is so novel as to strike one with surprise at the fortitude of the man who should attempt it. But Sir John, it seems, was determined to incur some risk in the pursuit of fame; and being resolved to visit Holland, he adopted the stratagem of passing for an American, whom he resembled, and whose passport he procured.

He went over to Holland with two friends, (Americans, we are to suppose) in a Dutch galliot, from Gravesend; and after being six days on the passage, came within sight of his destination. There was no occurrence worth notice during this time, except the devotional attention of the Dutchman and his crew, who

consecrated every breakfast and supper by a long and shrill anthem, and a still longer prayer.

After a passage, says Sir John, during which our patience was put to a severe trial, we discovered Schouwen, and soon after the Island of Goree, where the wind begins to freshen, and just before we made the mouth of the Maas, we met and hailed a fine large fishing smack, the captain of which our commander endeavoured to prevail upon, by the usual and generally successful application of a little money, to smuggle us into the Briel: after a long consultation, the captain and crew of the smack, not considering that all was fish which came to their net, refused to take charge of us, and to our no very pleasant sensations, instead of standing out to sea, tacked and returned to the Briel under full press of canvass. A low slimy shore surmounted by green flags and a few scanty ozers announced our voyage to be at its close, and we entered the river of a country which our Hudibrastic Butler thus peevishly describes:

“ A country that draws fifty foot of water,
In which men live as in the hold of nature;
And when the sea does in upon them break,
And drowns a province, does but spring a leak:
That always ply the pump, and never think
They can be safe, but at the rate they stink;
That live as if they had been run aground,
And, when they die, are cast away and drown'd;
That dwell in ships, like swarms of rats, and prey
Upon the goods all nations ships convey;
And when their merchants are blown up and crack
Whole towns are cast away in storms and wreck:
That feed like cannibals, on other fishes,
And serve their cousin Germans up in dishes,
A land that rides at anchor, and is moor'd,
In which they do not live, but go aboard.”

The Duke of Alva, with more whimsicality and less bitterness, observed, “that the Dutch, were the nearest neighbours to hell of any people on the earth, for they dwelt the lowest.”

DUTCH TELEGRAPH.

In consequence of the tide being always very rapid when going out, and the wind again falling, we came to an anchor in the mouth of the Maas. One of the first objects that saluted our eyes, in this state, was the telegraph, which was in a state of uncommon activity, and the glasses of its official attendants often came in direct opposition with ours. The balls flew up and down with wonderful rapidity for nearly an hour after we anchored, and sufficiently explained the motive which induced

the captain of the smack to return to port. The signification of the word Briel, in Dutch, is *spectacle*, which is supposed to have given its name to this place, on account of the extensive view which its buildings command of the surrounding country. This town is celebrated for having given birth to the illustrious warrior admiral Cornelius Van Tromp.

In the dead of the night, and in a deep fog, a fishing boat, dropped along side, the master of which told us that the last vessel which had arrived from England had been confiscated, and all the passengers made prisoners, and after this exordium offered to conduct us in safety past the guard-ship if we would give him two guineas apiece: and to secure our transit, he proposed shutting us all down in his cabin, under hatchways, for that night and the whole of the next day, and then dropping past the guard-ship in the evening; during all which time we must have sat clin to knee, and have been infinitely worse accommodated than a cargo of African slaves. As we had a mortal aversion from being introduced into the kingdom in this furtive manner, we persisted in refusing to quit our vessel, to the no little mortification of our captain, who having safely deposited our passage money in a large tin box, was very anxious to get rid of us in any manner. I believe personal apprehensions induced him to weigh the anchor early next morning, and to bear away for Maasland-leys, on the other side of the Maas, where after the captain had satisfied the commodore commanding the guard-ships there, to whom he was well known, that we all came from Varel, a little neutral town to the eastward of the Weser, a fast sailing fishing boat was provided to take us up to Rotterdam, a distance of twenty-five miles, at half-a-guinea a head.

MERWE RIVER.

Gladly we bade adieu to our miserable ark, and about six o'clock in the evening embarked upon the Merwe river, a noble branch of the Maas, the breadth of which is about a mile, lessening but in a little degree as it reaches Rotterdam. The water of this river is rather foul, its shores are beautifully lined with villages, farm-houses, and avenues of trees. A botanical gentleman informed me that the *Eryngium campestre*, field crygo, so very rare in England, grows in great profusion, and wild, on either side of the river, and in most other parts of Holland.

When the night advanced, the floating lanthorns of the fishermen had a pleasing and romantic effect, as we glided along with a fine breeze; and a row of lamps running parallel with a canal supplied by the Merwe, announced our passing Schiedam, &c

celebrated throughout Holland for its distilleries of geneva, of which we were informed there were three hundred before Holland submitted to the arms of France.

When the French troops entered Holland as victors, this beautiful river, in a season remarkably rigorous, formed a compact road of ice for the infantry, cavalry, and artillery, of the invaders: dreadful as the winter was, the French were in want of the most necessary articles of cloathing; even whole battalions were destitute of shoes and stockings, and centinels frequently did duty with no other covering than a tattered blanket, and the fragment of a pair of breeches, which time and service had reduced by instalments to little more than a few shreds: yet they did not repine.

When the French troops entered Rotterdam, they were quartered on the inhabitants, whose good opinion, I was well informed, they soon conciliated by their quiet conduct and orderly deportment. I afterwards received the same character of the French troops in other parts of Holland, from those with whom, I am convinced, they were not very welcome visitors, on account of the contributions which they levied.

LUDICROUS ACCIDENT.

In the faces of our crew, and the scenery on each side of us, before dusk-fall, we saw those studies to which the exquisite works of the Dutch school have familiarized every person of taste. About twelve o'clock we arrived at the boom, or barrier for shipping at Rotterdam, and here a luckless accident had nearly befallen me. The luggage of the passengers was deposited in small holds nearly the length of the vessel, covered over with loose boards: the night was dark, and as by the light of a solitary lamp we were endeavouring to get at our luggage, a fat Dutchman's wife sprung out of the cabin, in which she had been concealed during our expedition up the river, who thinking that we were molesting some of her bonnet boxes, in the unguarded violence of her approach, slipped into one of the holds, the boards of which had been inadvertently left open by the Swiss bridegroom before mentioned, in an irritable struggle to obtain his luggage; the oaths and howlings of the poor lady brought out her husband, a man whom we had remarked for the unpleasantness of his physiognomy and deportment during the voyage, and as I stood nearest to his prostrate wife in the act of assisting her, he charged me with having maliciously occasioned her suffering, and threatened repeatedly to call the watchmen of the city and send me and my companions to prison.

It was a long time before I could allay the storm, and dulcify

the temper of this man, which, considering my situation, required some little forbearance and management of feeling. At length we got on shore, and after much difficulty and perambulation discovered a comfortable hotel in the suburbs; the gates of the city being always shut, and the boom closed at eleven o'clock.

Our hotel lay at the bottom of a most beautiful avenue of trees, running parallel with the river opposite to the ferry. Our landlord was very civil, and all his servants spoke French. In the principal apartment was a print of Napoleon in his coronation robes—I afterwards observed similar prints in many other houses in the city.

ROTTERDAM.

Many of the principal merchants of Rotterdam have country-houses in these delightful suburbs. I walked along a line of them, and beheld, for the first time, a specimen of the taste of the Dutch in rural scenery: the gardens, upon a level with the river, and divided from it by a high raised road, appeared to have been all designed by a mathematician; but still their neatness and luxuriance left a pleasing impression on the mind. Upon every gate, or house, a motto indicative of the mind of the owner, or of the character of the place, presented itself—of which the following are specimens.

Vreede is myn Lust Haf
 Peace is my garden.
 Lust en rust
 Hope and repose.
 Na by Bruten
 Almost out of town.
 Ziet op u minder
 Look upon those beneath you.
 N. B. This was inscribed upon a large
 house that commanded some little cottages.
 Wel te vreeda
 Very content, &c. &c.

These inscriptions are seldom used but by opulent tradesmen; amongst the higher classes they are considered to be a little tinctured with vulgarity, though, as I found, they sometimes indulge in them: the villas of the latter are frequently known by names corresponding with those which are applied to the country residences of the superior families in England.

In the morning our luggage was inspected by the proper officers, who gave us very little trouble, and were content with a trifling *douceur*. The entrance to the city, towards the river,

through the principal gate, called *De Nieuwe Hoofds Poort*, a structure infinitely more elegant than another barrier of this city, called *De Oude Hoofds Poort*, is very handsome.

The immediate transition from the tranquillity of the country to the busy hum of men was very striking; the canals, with their numerous draw-bridges, as we proceeded to our city hotel, the *Marschal de Turenne*, were lined with vessels of all sorts and sizes; and notwithstanding the war, every one appeared to be engaged in some active pursuit or another.

Before hostilities began, it was no uncommon circumstance to see between three and four hundred merchant ships, from England alone, lying in these canals and in the *Maas*; by which a vast commerce is carried on with the greatest facility and economy, from the centre to the extremities of the kingdom; and as they communicate with the *Rhine* and other large rivers, all the productions of the earth are conveyed at little expence to many parts of the continent, in a period of tranquillity.

The number of beautiful streets adorned, as is the case throughout Holland, with noble rows of trees, is a spectacle at once novel and beautiful. The trees act as a fan to the houses in hot weather, and their leaves are said to inhale whatever mephitic air may arise from such of the canals as are stagnant, and to breathe it out again with refreshing purity.

In a sick chamber, fresh flowers are *now* thought salubrious, although, in no very distant time, they were regarded by the faculty as extremely noxious.

The city derives its name from the adjoining river *Rotte*, which unites with the *Merwe*, and from the neighbourhood of both to the sea, renders the situation of this town very eligible for trade, commerce, and navigation. The pleasure-boats of some of the merchants, which we saw moored opposite to their houses, appeared to be very clumsy, and constructed only for smoking or napping in: they were broad, high at the head and stern, admitted only of one rower, and had a heavy cabin with moveable glass windows towards the stern.

One of the first appearances which impress a foreigner on his arrival in Holland is that of the houses, which, built of very small bricks, very lofty, and filled with large windows, project forward as they ascend—to such a rage has this unaccountable passion for avoiding an upright been carried, that I am sure many of them must be two or three yards out of the perpendicular: nothing can be more whimsical than the corner houses of most of the streets. If these houses had not the appearance of being perfectly stable, from the freshness of their outsides, and from their presenting no fissures, a stranger would be induced,

from apprehension of personal safety, to prefer paddling his way in the very centre of their canals, to walking in the streets. No scene can at first be more novel and interesting than that which Rotterdam presents; masts of ships, enlivened by gay streamers; beautiful stately trees and lofty leaning houses appear mingled together, and at one view he sees before him the characteristic features of the country, the city, and the sea.

BOOM-QUAY.

One of the first places we visited, continues our traveller, was the Boom-quay, or Boompics, which extends along the river, about half a mile from the new to the old head, the two places where the water enters the city, and fills the canals, which are seven in number: this street is very broad and truly magnificent; and the prospect from it, over the river, and the opposite country, highly delightful. Cheyne-walk at Chelsea is a very humble resemblance to it.

Many of the houses are very noble, and some of them are built of free-stone, which not being the produce of the country, must have been brought to the spot at a great expence. In England a rage for expensive building had so possessed a man whom I knew, and who resided very far from the capital, that he had many parcels filled with bricks and stones sent down to his workmen by the mail coach.

The Boom-quay forms a fine mall for the inhabitants of the city, and is chiefly the residence of the most opulent and elegant families. An English nobleman, Lord North and Gray, had many years since a superb house here, which he became entitled to in right of his wife, a rich Dutch lady.

ANECDOTE OF BAYLE.

Upon this quay once resided the celebrated Bayle, the author of the Historical and Critical Dictionary, and professor of philosophy and history at Rotterdam, from which he was removed by the influence of M. Jurieu, who in a violent controversy with him, had illiberally misrepresented his principles, and driven him to great penury. The writings of this extraordinary man are so versatile and so adapted to every one's taste, that he secured readers amongst divines, philosophers, physicians, wits, and libertines in every part of Europe.

No stranger can visit the Boom-quay without being informed that Bayle resided there, and without having the spot where his little mansion stood pointed out to him. It is the noble nature of genius to requite the ingratitude of a thankless country, by

shedding upon it unquenchable lustre, and raising it in the rank of nations.

In several parts of the city, memorials of the inroads of the Spaniards are traceable, not only in the forms of several of the buildings, but in several mottoes and inscriptions in their language, which are still legible in many of the old buildings, in this and in other cities.

DUTCH JEWS AND BEGGARS.

The number of Jews in Rotterdam is very great, and many of them are of high respectability, and as much distinguished for their integrity, as their industry and opulence.

Soon after my arrival I had the pleasure of dining with one of the first families of that persuasion: our host, a very amiable man, gave us a true Dutch dinner, consisting of nearly fifteen different sorts of fish, exquisitely dressed, and served up with vegetables of various kinds. In Holland, in preparing the fish for the kettle, the head, and fins, and tail, are generally cut off. In this city port wine is scarcely ever drank, it is by no means gratifying to a Dutch palate. Some was presented to me at a dinner where I was, but it was so old that all its flavour had evaporated. The principal wines drank are Claret, Madeira, and the Rhine wines. I found the bread in Holland every where excellent, and the coffee every where bad.

I soon found that the received opinion of there being no beggars in Holland is perfectly erroneous. I was frequently beset by these sons and daughters of sorrow or idleness, who preferred their petition with indefatigable pursuit, but in so gentle a tone, that it was evident they were fearful of the police. They are abundant, but orderly. It was observed by some English in Holland, that a Dutch beggar is too wise to waste his breath by asking alms of a Dutchman, and that relief is only sought from strangers; the fact is, there are so many asylums for paupers, that a Dutchman acquainted with the legislative provision made for them, always considers a beggar as a lawless vagabond.

For this reason, and this alone, Charity seldom takes an airing in Holland: towards the wretched in the streets, the rich in this country

“ Resemble sweet instruments hung up in cases,

“ That keep their sounds to themselves.”

Timon of Athens, Act. I. Sc. 5.

In no country of its size, are there more charitable institutions, and at the same time a stronger appetite for accumulation. To

make a good bargain is considered by many a Dutchman as the highest achievement of the human mind. As a proof that they never suffer their national animosities to interfere with individual interest, the reader may rely on the following anecdote. In an early stage of the last war, when the Dutch government rigorously prohibited the importation of English manufactures, some members of the executive body entered into an agreement with a mercantile house in Rotterdam, to supply the requisition for the cloathing of the French army, by a clandestine importation of cloth from England, and the looms of Yorkshire accordingly clothed ten thousand French soldiers.

The same commercial spirit was observed by the Dutch many years since to us, when, in a severe battle between the fleets of the Republic and Great Britain, during a cessation of the fight, for the mutual accommodation of repairing, some of the officers of the Dutch ships actually offered the captains of some of ours, supplies of gun-powder at an advanced price, in consequence of understanding that two or three of our ships had nearly exhausted their stores of it.

I no where saw, except amongst the skippers, that mighty mass of breeches, in which my expectation had in part cloathed every Dutchman's frame: but the appearance of many of the men in long flowered waistcoats, and trunk hose, and the females in short plaited petticoats, blue stockings, and large round silver buckles projecting over either side of the foot, was very whimsical.

HEREDITARY BREECHES.

Many of their dresses are hereditary; and grandfather, father, and son, have in regular succession proceeded to the altar in the same nuptial breeches. Their quays are very spacious, and every where embellished with trees; and the canals deeper and cleaner than in any other of the large cities in the kingdom.

In consequence of the features of every street being so similar, a stranger finds uncommon difficulty in reaching the place of his destination, or in returning to his hotel, without a guide.

THE EXCHANGE.

After having secured a bed-room, and deposited our luggage at the Mareschal de Turenne, kept by Mr. Crabb, an Englishman, who renders the character of a maitre d'hotel eminently respectable, by his attention to foreigners of every description, and to his own countrymen in particular, by moderate charges

and excellent accommodations, we proceeded to the Exchange at two o'clock, when the merchants assemble.

This building is an oblong square, with a covered walk on each side, and is a plain handsome building. It was finished in 1736. I was astonished to find it crowded in every part, and presenting, in the activity and bustle which were displayed, every appearance of a great commercial country in a high state of prosperous tranquillity. In this Babel assembly the greatest interest for a successful termination of the negotiation between France and England seemed anxiously to prevail; and induced a stranger like myself to think that the interests of Holland were pretty closely interwoven with those of England.

The arrival of English papers, and of couriers from Paris, never failed to excite a strong sensation from one end of the city to the other. Upon the exchange I saw several Englishmen transacting business; and such is the respect which the Dutch bear towards us, that we soon found the suspicion of our being English rather increased than damped the civilities we experienced.

As Rotterdam may be considered, as Bonaparte has recently described the city of Hamburg, *une ville Anglaise*, in consequence of so many English families having settled there before the revolution, and also of the proximity of its port to England, it was with surprise I found that the new ruler and form of government were so popular as they are in this city.

In the years 1794 and 1795 the progress of the French arms excited uncommon consternation in this city, in which a higher veneration for the stadtholderian government, as established under the influence of England and Prussia in 1787, existed, than in any other city in the United Provinces.

A short time before we visited Rotterdam, we heard that the king and queen had visited that city, the only one which they had then honoured with their presence, except the seat of the royal residence at the Hague.

Upon their arrival in the city, their majesties and the two princes, in their carriages, attended by their suite and an escort of horse, proceeded to the Exchange, where they were waited upon by the principal functionaries and a deputation of the most opulent merchants of the city. Their majesties appeared to be much affected by the very flattering manner in which they were received.

The queen, who is always mentioned by those who have had the honour of knowing her before and since the wonderful elevation of so many branches of her family, as a most amiable, enlightened, and accomplished woman, very much gratified some

of the members and the nation at large, by observing upon the Exchange: "We are deeply penetrated by the cordiality with which we have been received in the country; as strangers we could not, and did not expect such a reception; but we hope to remain long enough amongst you to secure your esteem, by doing all the good in our power." This short address, delivered with that grace and manner, which, I am informed, are so characteristic of her majesty, captivated all the Dutchmen present, and spread with great celerity through every part of the city, and contributed to raise her very high in the public estimation.

From the Exchange their majesties proceeded to the Admiralty, and were gratified, for the first time in their lives, with seeing a man of war, a seventy-four, launched; and after partaking of a splendid collation, they passed through the principal streets in a single carriage, unattended by their body guard. On this public occasion, the only external ornament which the king wore was the star of the legion of honour.

EFFORTS OF THE KING OF HOLLAND.

In the department of the admiralty, the king has effected many wise and salutary regulations. He has abolished all the sinecure offices attached to it, reduced overgrown salaries, and doubled the hours of labour of the clerks, who were before almost receiving the wages of idleness from the country. By this firm and sagacious conduct, the king has already produced a saving to the state of *two millions sterling a year*.

Before the new constitution, which will be given hereafter, was finally adjusted, the king declared, that the national debt should be most sacredly respected, and its guarantee forms accordingly a permanent feature in that system, and measures have been adopted for its speedy liquidation. The king has also chosen two gentlemen of high respectability from the body of the merchants of Rotterdam, to be members of his council.

Before these circumstances, and the previous unsettled condition of the country are known or reflected upon, it would appear somewhat paradoxical, that as the interests of the Dutch have a bias in favour of England, and as their government is of French construction, the ruler who has been placed over them by events little less than miraculous, could ever, and especially in so short a time, have made himself popular; but to the fact I pledge myself, upon the authority of some of the most respectable and enlightened Dutchmen in different parts of Holland, repeatedly renewed to me.

It is a subject of congratulation with every Englishman, that a similar spirit of economy and retrenchment animates the minds of the present administration, which, during the short period of its elevation to power, has purified many of the public offices of slothful supernumeraries, and has to its eternal honour refused to augment the public burthens by reversionary pensions.

By such instances of public virtue, and the wisdom, vigour, and sound policy, which reign in the councils of his majesty, the British empire may ultimately triumph over its enemies, or at least be preserved entire amidst the general wreck of other nations.

The king of Holland was described to me to resemble his brother Napoleon, very strongly in size, complexion, manner, thoughtful taciturnity, and abstemiousness; he is a great invalid, and has received some severe paralytic shocks in one of his arms, for which, as well as for the general extreme delicate state of his health, he has been obliged to visit the baths of Wisbaden, and to drink the waters of the Spa; which prevented his remaining in Holland but for a very short time, after the constitution had placed him on the throne, and he was absent when I was there.

The king has the reputation of being much pleased with the English character, and very fond of the society of Englishmen; a gratification which a series of adverse circumstances has prevented him from indulging in for some time past. I remember, when I was at Paris, during the brief pause of war, that just gave "a time for frightened peace to pant," he was never more happy than when he had one of our countrymen at his splendid and hospitable table. "

FAMILY OF THE 'DUTCH SOVEREIGN.

The queen is, as she was also described to me, a brunette of considerable beauty, inclined to the *en'bon point*, has a face expressive of great suavity of mind, and is highly accomplished; she particularly excels in dancing, in which, for the gracefulness of her attitudes, she is said to be unrivalled. To this elegant accomplishment she is particularly attached, and when she travels, is generally complimented, in any considerable town where she stops for a day or two, with a public ball, an attention by which she is always much gratified.

Their majesties have two princes who are very young; the eldest is called Napoleon after the emperor. Should the dynasty of the Bonapartes experience no convulsive overthrow, it is generally believed that, upon the demise of that extraordinary being, who has pushed so many kings from their thrones to make

room for the members of his own family, the crown of France will devolve upon this child.

In detailing these few anecdotes, which to me at least were interesting, I have been induced by a veneration for truth alone, to give a representation which, to such as think that nothing favourable, however deserved, should be reported of those with whom we are not in amity, will not be very palatable. To an enemy, if not generous, let us at least be always just. It is as base in principle, as it is dangerous in politics, to depreciate the popularity of a prince with whom we are at war, for it obviously leads to a miscalculation of his influence upon his people, and of the nature and extent of his strength and resources.

I abhor fawning a sovereign with adulation, more especially the ruler of a country at war with my own; but it is what I owe to my country to relate the fact.

CHARACTERISTIC PHYSIOGNOMIES.

In my way to the celebrated statue of Erasmus, and indeed wherever I moved, almost every face I met looked as if it belonged to a soul more disposed to cultivate the figures of arithmetic, than of rhetoric. I saw none of those sprightly physiognomies, which abound in the large towns of England or France, full of smiles, of levity, and carelessness, the happy owners of which appear as if they basked and frolicked in the sunshine of every event. Even the Spanish proverb, "thoughts close, looks loose," is not observed in this city. An eye prone to the earth, a look of settled meditation, and a measured pace denote the Rotterdammer. Yet with these appearances Holland has not been insensible to that literary merit, in honour of which, in other times and regions, the Grecians and Romans raised temples, statues, and constituted public games, to which the Persians, the Arabians, the Turks, and even the Chinese, presented the most magnificent rewards.

STATUE OF ERASMUS.

This statue stands upon an arch crossing a canal, and is nearly ten feet high; it was finished in 1622, and is said to be the *chef-d'œuvre* of Henry de Keiser, a very celebrated statuary and architect. It has been said, that in the quality of the different statues which the Dutch raised to the memory of Erasmus, may be traced the different degrees of zeal with which his memory was cherished by them.—This statue is of bronze.

In 1540 they raised a statue of wood; seventeen years afterwards, blushing for the little respect they had observed, they exchanged it for one of bluestone; and in sixty-five years follow-

ing apotheothized him by the noble memorial of their veneration, which I contemplated with equal admiration and delight. In 1572 the Spaniards, Vandal-like, shot at the stone statue with their muskets, and threw it in the canal, from whence it was afterwards raised and again set up, by order of the magistrates, upon the expulsion of the Spaniards.

The bronze figure is clad in an ecclesiastical habit, with an open book in his hand. Various attempts have at different times been made to convert the sage into a turncoat; before the revolution which expelled the stadtholder and his family, every concavity in his dress was crammed, on certain holidays, with oranges; during the hey-day of the republican form of government, amidst the celebration of its festivals, he was covered with tri-coloured ribbons, when the juice of the orange was never suffered to pass the lips of a true patriot!!

Erasmus was very accomplished: he is said to have imbibed from Hans Holbein a fine taste for painting, and to have painted several pictures whilst in the convent at Gouda.

Amongst the churches, the only one I saw worthy of notice was the cathedral of St. Lawrence, the tower of which I ascended, and from its top commanded the greater part of the south of Holland. The body of the church is very large. The walls, like all the rest of the Dutch churches, are saddened over with a great number of sable escutcheons, and the floor covered with rush-bottom chairs for the congregation when assembled. A magnificent brass ballustrade of exquisite workmanship, separates the choir from the nave. The church is used for various purposes: the synod of the province used to assemble in it the presbytery of the town; I was informed he still continues to do so; and at the fairs, booths are erected in it.

The only monuments worthy of attention, and those merit but little, are erected to the memories of Admiral Cornelius de Witt, Johannes a Brakel, and Admiral Korlenaar. A magnificent organ has been building for some years in this church: a very large but inadequate sum of money has been subscribed for this superb instrument, which is intended to rival the celebrated one at Haerlem, but much more money will be necessary for that purpose: the object of this measure is not out of homage to St. Cecilia, but from a commercial spirit, that repines at hearing of the number of persons who flock to Haerlem to hear its boasted instrument, by which considerable sums of money in the course of the year are expended in that city.

To the honor of Holland, her seminaries of learning have always been favorite objects with her government; and I was well informed, that to the further promotion of this great and

vital source of the morals, order, and glory of nations, the king has devoted much of his consideration.

To the choirs of this cathedral, the scholars of the charity schools of the city, attended by their masters and professors, repair twice a year to undergo a public examination, in the presence of the principal officers of the state resident in the city, who are distinguished for their learning, attended by some of the clergy. The rector, or first professor, opens the meeting with a short speech in praise of *Literature and the Civil Magistracy*: such of the pupils as are about to remove to the university, pronounce an oration in praise of some illustrious prince, or of Erasmus; on the dignity, ornament, and utility of sound learning to a state; in praise of commerce and industry; on the baneful consequence of passion and indolence; on fortitude, patience, concord, and other moral virtues: they then conclude with a compliment to their masters for their care of them, and to the magistrates for honoring them with their presence; and finally, take leave of their school-fellows, whom they exhort to pursue their studies indefatigably, and to live in amity with each other.

The principal magistrates then present each of them with some classical author, superbly bound and gilt: the juniors, who are to remove to the higher classes, then come forward, and compliment the magistrates and their masters in a sentence or two either of verse or prose. The effect of this ceremony is increased by the organ playing at its commencement and close.

The reader will, I am sure, says Sir John, be gratified with this brief description of a plan so generative of every good to the nation which adopts it. Children, as soon as they can think, discover that they are the peculiar care of their country; they are taught to respect its laws, and by descanting upon, to imitate its most shining examples, and to repay the paternal solicitude of the government, by becoming useful or ornamental members of its community.

Amidst the political storms which have agitated Holland for so many years, more fatal to its prosperity than those of the ocean, in which it almost appears to float, education has never been neglected: to bestow upon his children decent and useful instruction, has ever formed the anxious care of the Hollander: he feels that whilst he trains their minds to habits of investigation and industry, he secures to them, under any form of government, the sources of support and advancement.

This general diffusion of useful instruction made Holland what she was in the most shining periods of her history, and

whenever its enlightening influence shall cease to be felt, as a commercial country she must decline.

The very few instances of cruelty which occurred in Holland during the late revolution, have been very justly attributed to the happy effects of education. Whenever any disposition to severity evinced itself, an appeal to reason and humanity inclined it to forgive: a memorable proof of this statement will hereafter appear in the account of some of the revolutionary movements which occurred at Amsterdam.

Even an English merchant would be astonished to see the wonderful arithmetical attainment of stripling clerks in any of the Dutch computing-houses, and the quantity of complicated business which they discharge in the course of the day, the order of their books, the rapidity and certainty of their calculation, according to the commercial habits and exchange of different countries, and the variety of languages which they speak; to which may be added, the great regularity and length of their attendance, and the decency and propriety of their deportment.

COIN OF HOLLAND.

It is with great reluctance, says our traveller, I approach the subject of the currency of Holland, but as I hope to be read by some one who may hereafter visit that country, as much a stranger as I was to it, it is fit that I should not omit it; and I hereby apprise all my *chair-travelling* readers of my intention, that they may *leap* over my *table* of coins if they choose so to do.

SILVER COINS.

A doyt. Worth about half a farthing.

A stiver. About a penny at par. Twelve stivers are generally, but not in every part of Holland, considered equal to a shilling. This coin resembles a silver penny.

Dubbeltje, or two stiver piece. This coin is very convenient small change.

A quarter guilder, or five stiver piece. This coin, I am told, is very rare; I met with none of it.

A zesthalven, or five stivers and four doys. This is a piece of base metal, and equal to an English sixpence; it is very convenient for an English traveller, on account of its precise value being known.

Schellingen, of various kinds, the size of which determines the value, unless they are stamped.

Six and a half stiver piece. A silver piece, little larger than a sixpence, and the eighth part of a rix-dollar.

Eight stiver piece. A larger, but thinner piece than a schellingen, not much in circulation.

Ten stiver piece. Worth half a guilder, very scarce.

Twelve and a half stiver piece. Not much in use.

Thirteen stiver piece. A Zealand coin, and much in circulation.

A guilder or florin, or twenty stiver piece. The legitimate coin of Holland, by which they calculate, and is the best silver.

Twenty-four stiver piece, or half a rix-dollar.

Twenty-six stiver piece.

Twenty-eight stiver piece. There are many sorts of this in Holland: it is usual to receive five in a lot, each of which is equal to seven guilders.

Thirty stiver piece, or dollar. Of the value of half a crown English, and about that size.

Thirty-one and a half stiver piece, or half a ducatoon. They are rare.

Forty stiver piece, or two guilder piece. Not common.

Fifty stiver piece. The antient rix-dollar; not much in use.

Fifty-two stiver piece, or modern rix-dollar. Much in circulation—in Amsterdam, and several other places, they will not pass for more than 50 or 51 stivers. In Zealand they are worth 53.

Sixty stiver piece, called a three guilder piece. Much in use.

Sixty-three stiver piece, or ducatoon. Coined when the Spaniards were in the country.

GOLD COINS.

A ducat. A beautiful coin, of the purest fine gold. The Jews and the brokers generally deal in this coin, for which they receive two or three stivers profit on each. It is thin, and remarkably pleasant to the touch; and as a proof of its purity, it will bear to be frequently bent, without breaking. Upon almost every part of the continent this coin bears a premium, and is current throughout Europe.

A double ducat is ten guilders ten stivers.

Rider, fourteen guilders.

Half rider, seven guilders. These are current through the provinces.

I would recommend the traveller to carry with him a sufficient number of guineas for his return to England, as they are

scarce and very dear; for twelve guineas I paid an exchange of 35-4 agio 104 on 145, or 13*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*

No alteration has taken place in the legends of the coins of Holland. Since the revolution there has been a copious silver coinage, but the florin has remained the same for more than a century. The old calendar is adhered to, with the slight alterations rendered necessary by a change in the name and spirit of the government.

The practice of vails-giving still continues in Holland. Previous to my going to dine with some acquaintances which I made at Rotterdam, I was particularly reminded by a friend who knew the habits of the country, not to forget to carry a few florins with me, as the servant who opened the door, upon my quitting the house, would expect either one or two of those pieces. This abominably mean practice existed in England in a higher degree, and still continues in part in the shape of card money.*

In houses of great resort in Holland, servants are in the habit of purchasing their places of their masters free of wages, solely for the donceurs which custom rigidly exacts from the visitor. At one table a friend of mine, a thoughtless Englishman, was reminded of his having forgotten the usage, by having a quantity soup poured over his new coat by *accidental design*.

VEGETABLES.

In the streets I was much gratified by seeing the fruit and vegetable sellers; the fruit was abundant, very fresh, and fine, and such as is usually to be found at the same season in England; the vegetables are remarkably excellent, and are submitted to the eye in the cleanest and most attractive manner. The Dutch potatoes are small, and uncommonly good; I think they are, if possible, superior to those of Ireland.

DUTCH CLEANLINESS.

The proximity of the houses to the canals enables the Dutch women to indulge to the full extent of their wishes, in scrubbing and mopping their passages and rooms, which they do from the first to the last blush of day; indeed, cleanliness in their houses is carried to a painful excess. All the strong features of an English Saturday evening, viz. mops, pails, scrubbing-brushes, dusters, fullers' earth, are in active use every hour of the day, in Holland; and a little hand-garden engine is in perpetual requisition, for washing the outside of the windows.

But the aqua-terrene nymphs to whose hands these right useful in trumeuts are committed, appear to be so solicitous of removing every feculent impression of the foot in their white-tiled

halls, of giving a brilliant polish to the brass knockers, and of preserving the furniture of the rooms unsullied, that they frequently neglect to purify their own persons; the charms of which are to be often seen mingled with, if not obscured by, the accretions of long neglect and inattention. Some travellers have extended similar remarks to the higher classes of the female sex, but unquestionably with more spleen than truth.

I had the honor of being acquainted with many Dutch ladies of respectability, and found them to be very neat in their persons, but my first remark too powerfully applies to the lower orders of the sex: they have no leisure to attend to themselves.

I remember at Amsterdam a servant was very angry because I would not suffer her to wash my bed-room every day. It might be supposed that in a climate which must be naturally very humid, the natives would prefer having dry rooms as long as possible.

RHINE BOATS.

Upon some of the canals I saw Rhine boats of extraordinary dimensions; they were principally laden with hardware, and their owners and families reside wholly on board, in a suit of cabins, generally raised upon the deck, which in point of commodious arrangement, of neatness and comfort, cannot easily be surpassed on shore. Upon the fore and aft part of the deck their ware is exposed to sale, and below are prodigious depots of the same articles. These vessels are frequently six months in their voyage up and down the Rhine, in consequence of their stopping at those cities or towns situated on its banks, where the owners are likely to have a market for their merchandize.

The reader will be surprised to hear that in several shops I saw many prints of our illustrious Nelson, in which the artist, in order to prevent the beholder from doubting that he had lost the sight of one eye in the service of his country, had the optic completely removed from its socket, and left a large frightful hole, for the purpose of illustrating this part of his heroic history.

REPORTED STATE OF FRANCE.

At an excellent *table d'hôte*, at the Mareschal de Turenne, says Sir John, I had the happiness of meeting several of my countrymen, who were returning to England, after a long and most unjust detention at Verdun; from them I learned that specie was abundant in France, and that Napoleon scarcely admitted any paper to be in circulation; that the roads were no longer farmed, but by the aid of a small additional duty on salt, were put into the finest condition, and that no toll whatever was taken in any part of the empire. They said, that in point of restriction, they were not

rigidly treated, but there were no bounds to the rapacity of those appointed to look after them, particularly of the *gens d'armes*.

COLLECTIONS OF PAINTINGS.

The collections of paintings in Rotterdam are not numerous, but very select: perhaps no people upon the face of the earth ever displayed a more inveterate and immoveable attachment to every thing of native growth than the Dutch, except the Chinese, who consider the improvement as the penal innovation, and who confined a native in irons for life, because he ventured to make a boat upon a new construction, by which it sailed faster than any other.

This immoveable adhesion to old customs in the Dutch, is the more singular, as from their commercial character, they have been in constant intercourse with the natives of every quarter of the globe, the various produces of which they have brought into their own canals, but not for adoption, imitation, or, generally speaking, for consumption, but solely for profitable re-sale. This spirit, or if you like to call it so, this *amor patriæ*, is strongly evinced in all their collections of paintings: in only one or two private cabinets in Holland are to be found any productions of the Italian and Venetian schools.

The finest private cabinet belongs to M. Vanderpals, a rich and very respectable merchant; it is principally filled by the works of that delightful master Nicholas Berchem, and Linglebach; of the former I shall give a few striking anecdotes when I reach Haarlem, the place of his nativity; of the latter I shall briefly speak when I describe Frankfort on the Maine, where he was born. M. Vanderpot, another wealthy merchant, has also a very large and well selected collection of the Dutch and Flemish painters. M. Lockhorst, a gentleman of commercial distinction, has also an assortment of pictures of the same school.

The proprietors of these valuable productions are always ready with the greatest politeness to gratify strangers with the sight of them.

The perfection to which the Dutch and Flemish schools arrived, proves that great artists may be formed, without the assistance of great galleries. The present low state of the French school demonstrates, that the most magnificent collection ever known, containing the renowned and exalted specimens of art, and opened to the inspection of every one with a becoming spirit of liberality, cannot form good artists. The Saint Jerome of Corregio, and the St. Cecilia of Michael Angelo, have created no successful disciple since their arrival at Paris.

At Dort, or Dordrecht, a city of great antiquity, about nine

miles from Rotterdam, resides a celebrated artist of the name of Vareseage, aged about fifty; he is justly celebrated for his candle-light subjects, which are masterly — one of his works, a school by candlelight, and a number of children, is spoken of as truly exquisite. On account of his eyes growing weak, he has altered his manner, and at present confines himself to large figures, portraits, and conversations.

As I was informed there was nothing very attractive at Dort, I did not visit that city: it is however famous for having given birth to several able men. John Gerard Vossius studied there in 1577, and wrote a great number of learned works; he was the father of Isaac Vossius, also a man of profound erudition. Our King Charles humorously observed of him, alluding to his credulity and infidelity “that he would believe any thing *but the Bible*.”

INTERPOSITION OF PROVIDENCE.

The following very interesting and extraordinary circumstance occurred at Dort in the year 1785, which is still the frequent narrative of the young and old of that city, who relate it with mingled sensations of awe and delight, as an interposition of Divine Providence in favor of a widow and her family of this city. This woman, who was very industrious, was left by her husband, an eminent carpenter, a comfortable house with some land, and two boats for carrying merchandize and passengers on the canals. She was also supposed to be worth about ten thousand guilders in ready money, which she employed in a hempen and sail-cloth manufactory, for the purpose of increasing her fortune and instructing her children (a son and two daughters) in useful branches of business.

One night about nine o'clock, when the workmen were gone home, a person dressed in uniform, with a musquet and broad sword, came to her house, and requested a lodging: “I let no lodgings, friend,” said the widow, “and besides, I have no spare bed, unless you sleep with my son, which I think very improper, on account of your being a perfect stranger to us all.” The soldier then shewed a discharge from Diesbach’s regiment (signed by the Major, who gave him an excellent character), and a passport from Comte Maillebois, governor of Breda. The widow, believing the stranger to be an honest man, called her son, and asked him if he would accommodate a veteran, who had served the republic thirty years with reputation, with part of his bed. The young man consented; the soldier was accordingly hospitably entertained; and at a seasonable hour withdrew to rest.

Some hours afterwards, a loud knocking was heard at the

street door, which roused the soldier, who moved softly down stairs, and listened at the hall door, when the blows were repeated, and the door almost broken through by a sledge, or some heavy instrument. By this time the widow and her daughters were much alarmed by this violent attack, and ran almost frantic through different parts of the house, exclaiming "Murder! Murder!" The son having joined the soldier with a case of loaded pistols, and the latter screwing on his bayonet and fresh priming his piece, which was charged with slugs, requested the women to keep themselves in a back room out of the way of danger. Soon after the door was burst in, two ruffians entered, and were instantly shot by the son, who discharged both his pistols at once. Two other associates of the dead men immediately returned the fire, but without effect, when the intrepid and veteran stranger, taking immediate advantage of the discharge of their arms, rushed on them like a lion, ran one through the body with his bayonet, and whilst the other was running away, lodged the contents of his piece between his shoulders, and he dropped dead on the spot. The son and the stranger then closed the door as well as they could, reloaded their arms, made a good fire, and watched till day-light, when the weavers and spinners of the manufactory came to resume their employment, who were struck with horror and surprize at seeing four men dead on the dunghill adjoining the house, where the soldier had dragged them before they closed the door.

The burgomaster and his syndic attended, and took the depositions of the family relative to this affair. The bodies were buried in a cross-road, and a stone erected over the grave, with this inscription: "Here lie the remains of four unknown ruffians, who deservedly lost their lives, in an attempt to rob and murder a worthy woman and her family. A stranger who slept in the house, to which Divine Providence undoubtedly directed him, was the principal instrument in preventing the perpetration of such horrid designs, which justly entitles him to a lasting memorial, and the thanks of the public. John Adrian de Gries, a discharged soldier from the regiment of Diesbach, a native of Middleburgh in Zealand, and upwards of seventy years old, was the David who slew two of these Goliaths, the rest being killed by the son of the family." *In honorem, a gratitudine ergo, Dei optimi maximi, pietatis et innocentie summi protectoris, magistratus et concilium civitatis Dortrechtensis hoc signum poni curavere, xx. die Nov. annoque salutis humane, 1785.*

The widow presented the soldier with one hundred guineas, and the city settled a handsome pension on him for the rest of his life.

LICENSED BROTHELS.

It is matter of surprize to the contemplative traveller to observe in a country apparently so mechanically moral and regular as Holland, the glaring defects of the most loose and meretricious government: in the heart of the finest cities are to be found brothels surpassing in iniquity all such seats of impurity in any other nation, in which the horrible novelty of the most savage oppression is united to a public, licensed, and authorised display of vice and profligacy. I mean the spill-houses, to one of which my lacquey de place conducted me about ten o'clock at night, when those scenes of revelry open. In a street, in an inferior quarter of the town, the sound of fiddles and dancing announced the approach to one of these houses: presently my guide stopped before one of them, into the saloon of which he introduced me by pulling aside a curtain drawn before the door, near which, in a little raised orchestra, two fiddlers were scrapping; upon benches at the other end of the room were seven or eight females, painted and dressed in all their finery, with large silver buckles, loose muslin robes, massy gilt ear-rings, and ornaments of the same metal round the head. Most of them looked very jaded. As soon as I entered, a bottle of wine and glasses, and pipes and tobacco, were put before me, for which I paid a florin, and which is considered as the premium of admission.

These miserable wretches were all prostitutes and prisoners, confined to this haunt of vice, and never suffered to pass its threshold until enabled, out of the wages of prostitution, to redeem themselves. The way in which they are ensnared into this brothel-dungeon is worthy of notice. The keeper of it hears of some girl who is in debt, frequently occasioned by dressing beyond her means, to set off her person to advantage at some of the music-rooms or other public places: he approaches her, pities her, offers her money to discharge her debts, advances her more for immediate and future purposes; she becomes his debtor: in a short time he seizes upon her person, and bears her away to his bagnio, and receives the profligate produce of her disgrace and infamy; and this scene of compound enormity is tolerated by the government, and has so continued for many years, till time has hardened the cruel practice into a custom which has become inoffensive to the people.

One of these poor wretches approached me; the affected gaiety of her deportment, so entirely discordant with the genuine feelings of a mind exposed to scenes of such humiliating profligacy, was in no little degree distressing; but I observed she drank the wine I gave her with a heavy heart, and some money presented her with, excited expressions of gratitude, but no emo-

tions of delight; from which I concluded that she was merely the channel through which my present would pass to her brutal gaoler; an apprehension which was confirmed to me by my lacquey upon my quitting this scene of complicated wretchedness.

The Dutch are so familiarized to these scenes, that parents frequently carry their children to them; not from the hope of preserving them from vicious propensities, by placing before their eyes the nauseous and frightful images of suffering profligacy. Such an experiment in morals would be somewhat dubious in its operations; for vice like deformity ceases to disgust in proportion as it is contemplated. Such ideas never enter the sober brains of such visitors: they go to spend an hour, which to them is mirthful, and the poor wretches I have mentioned augment the pleasures of the scene by the gaudiness of their finery, and the company add to its vivacity. In the beauty of its plumage, "they forget the dying bird."

Through considerable interest I was enabled to see the Rasp House, or prison for male or female culprits: it is a large quadrangular building; most of the cells and rooms look towards the yard, which is considerably below the level of the street. The food is wholesome and abundant, and the chambers are kept very neat. I saw in this place nothing objectionable but the period allowed to the prisoners for taking exercise, which is infinitely too short and infrequent, each person being allowed to walk in the yard only once in the week; the consequence is, that few of the prisoners looked healthy.

Holland is justly celebrated for its public charities. In Rotterdam, before the last war, there was many benevolent institutions, some of which have inevitably languished, and others expired, in consequence of the political convulsions of the country and the usually impoverishing effects of long hostility.

In the streets I was surprised to see the horses shod in the shameful and clumsy manner they are: the shoe is behind elevated to a considerable height, so that the poor animal must suffer from the position into which he is always forced, resembling that of a lady in a high-heeled pair of shoes of the last century.

LITERARY SOCIETY.

At my hotel I was much gratified by the whimsical appearance of a meeting called the *Society of Variety and Unity*, which was held there: about eighty Dutchmen of the middling classes of life were assembled in one of the rooms, to discuss philosophical, but more particularly religious questions: when I entered the room, one of their members was addressing the body upon the subject of death, as I was informed. His eloquence

appeared to be as sluggish as the canal opposite; the motto of the fraternity was well illustrated by what appeared--the only *variety* I saw was in their pipes, and their *unity* was effected by the fumes of their tobacco, which seemed to blend them in one common mass of smoke.

SPITTING-POTS.

I had not been two days in Holland without witnessing the abominable custom of introducing a spitting-pot upon the table after dinner, into which, like the Kava bowl used among the natives of the South-sea islands, each person present who smokes, which generally comprehends all who are present, discharges his saliva, which delicate depository is handed down as regularly as the bottle.

The Dutch are proverbial for smoking. The moment I entered any coffee-house, pipes and tobacco were introduced, as if the waiters were in dread of my inducing some pestilential disease without this sort of fumigation, and expressed uncommon surprise, when they remarked that I declined using them. The Dutch will insist upon it that smoking is not only as necessary to preserve their constitution; as paint is to protect the exterior of their houses from the effects of their moist climate; but that the vapour invigorates the mind, which mounted like an aerial spirit upon a cloud, pours forth measures of reflection with a brilliancy little short of inspiration.

The Dutch go to an astonishing expence for their pipes, which assume an endless variety of shapes, and are decorated sometimes, with the most conical figures painted on the head or cup of it, according to the taste of its possessor.

Many of the opulent Hollanders use a pipe, the head of which is made of a clay which is very rare, and found only in Turkey, of so beautiful a colour, that it is called the *Meerschaut*, or *froth of the sea*; for this piece of luxury the value of eight and even ten guineas is frequently paid.

The lower orders of society, and many of the higher, carry in their pockets their pipe, a prickler to clean the tube, a piece of tinder made in Germany from the large mushrooms growing on old trees, resembling sponge, a small steel and flint to kindle the fire with, and a box frequently capacious enough to contain a pound of tobacco.

It is curious to observe how naturally a pipe depends from a Dutchman's mouth, and with what perfect facility he smokes without the assistance of either hand: he literally appears to have been formed by nature to breathe through this tube, with which he rides on horseback, drives in a carriage, and even dances. I

have seen little boys take this Instrument and puff away with an apparently instinctive predilection for the transatlantic weed. Smoaking is a Dutchman's panacea, he thinks it good in all cases, whether of consumptions, or plethora, nervous debility, or fiery fever: as a masticatory, tobacco is but little used, even by the fishermen, sailors, and boors; and I was surprised to find, that in the social shape of snuff, it seemed not to have many admirers.

Few would wish to withhold from a Dutchman the narcotic enjoyment of his pipe, when they reflect, that he seeks no other species of oblivion to his cure; for I believe, notwithstanding a Dutchman's eulogium upon his pipe, that it produces more oblivion than inspiration: he is scarcely ever seen intoxicated; indeed, drunkenness is held unpardonably infamous in Holland. To keep bad accounts, and to be seen inebriated, are equally disgraceful; and hence the use of wines and spirituous liquors is much less in Holland than England.

The spill-houses are not the only objectionable instances of the abuse of the government, the police master is suffered to misuse his authority to a shameful excess. Instead of bringing delinquents to justice, he is in the frequent habit of privately compromising public offence, and putting the money paid into his own pocket. Some time before I was in Rotterdam, a burgher who had been guilty of adultery, paid twenty thousand guilders to this minister of justice, who thus partaking of the commercial spirit of his country, becomes a merchant in delinquency.

I saw in several shops a great number of articles of English manufacture exposed to sale, particularly Manchester goods. The Dutch manufacture their own woollens, and they are esteemed to be very good. The black cloth of Holland is very well known, which is infinitely of a deeper and superior colour than ours. The principal cloth manufactures are at Leyden and Tielburg. There are also very capital and flourishing manufactures of velvet, silk, and carpets, at Hilversom; and those of linen and table-cloths, which are exquisite at Overysse; and numerous paper-mills.

The population of Rotterdam is estimated at sixty-thousand inhabitants. Upon the whole, it is a gloomy place to live in—a constant iteration of the same canals, bridges, boats, houses, and figures, will soon damp the spirits of a traveller, unless naturally very vivacious. There is no theatre, no place of public amusement; but the spill-houser I have described, which are as much, at least to feeling minds, not accustomed to them, entitled to that appellation, as any of our houses of correction.

Here I bade adieu to my companions and friends, who proceeded direct to Germany, where I promised to rejoin them. I was by no means sorry to follow my lacquey to that quarter of the suburbs where the Delft boats set off every two hours, with my portmanteau, and to bid adieu to Rotterdam. Our treckschuyt lay ready for starting; at two o'clock, a little bell fastened on the outside of a house where the director resides, announced that all was ready; the horse was fastened to a very long, and rather a thin line, and we slipped through the liquid road, sensible of moving only from passing the objects that lined the sides of the canal, consisting for a considerable way of pretty houses and avenues of trees.

The treckschuyt is a long barge divided into two apartments; the after one, called the *ruif* or roof, possesses superior accommodations, and will hold from 8 to 12 persons, and the other from 40 to 50; this vessel, which is drawn by a single horse, moves so precisely at the rate of four miles an hour, that the Dutch always compute by the hour instead of the mile. In the cabin or roof, there are four oblique windows, which move up and down, and table in the middle, with a long drawer filled with pipes. The price is about three-pence an hour; this part is chiefly occupied by persons of a superior condition. So steady is the motion of the vessel, that the passenger may read, write, or draw in it without interruption.

The treckschuylts preserve an easy intercourse between the most distant parts of the kingdom, and the cheapness of their conveyance places them within the reach of the most slender purse. Every thing relative to these vessels is conducted with such admirable punctuality, that the passenger can tell to the smallest cost in the kingdom what his expenses will amount to, and to a minute when he shall arrive at the end of his journey, in which, if it be long, he carries his provision with him, or purchases a frugal meal at the house where the boat stops a few minutes for that purpose. At those places where the treckschuylts stop on account of the course of the canal being interrupted, and where passengers are in consequence obliged to quit one vessel to go to another, there are females who offer refreshments for sale, consisting of little rolls and small birds, and slices of cold baked eels, fastened to a small stick.

The treckschuylts are all under the direction of government, and are truly punctual, convenient, cheap, and agreeable. The town of Delft was about twelve miles, or three hours distant. On the sides of the canal, the surface of the water was frequently covered by the *Nympha alba*, a magnificent white water-lily,

whose expanded and unsullied flowers had a charming effect, particularly when intermixed with *Menyanthes nymphoides*, the yellow-fringed water-lilly, which are very uncommon in England.

We passed by several sawing or wood mills, which are moved by wind : the machinery of these buildings, which I afterwards examined, is very curious : they were originally invented by Corneille Van Uitgust. The flies of the mill are fixed to a large beam, which turns on an axis ; in the centre of the beam the principal wheel is fixed, which impels one immediately below it, which is also fixed on the middle of a piece of timber, hanging on an axis, to which four perpendicular saws, ten in each compartment, are fastened, which, as the wheel revolves, are elevated and depressed. Two iron hooks are fastened at the end of this beam, which catch a wheel, and as the saw rises and falls, move this wheel one cog : that wheel impels another, which catches into a piece of iron, and draws it towards itself ; at the end of this iron there is a cross bar, which presses against the end of the tree, while the other end is sawing, and gradually forces it on to the teeth of the saws, as they proceed in cutting.

In our treckschuyt, I witnessed a strong contrast to the spirits and loquacity of the French and Germans ; all was smoke and silence, save when it yielded to a few short sentences, in which the word *mi vrouw* frequently met my ear. One very grave elderly gentleman, who wore an enormous curled and powdered wig, and who somewhat resembled Lord Burleigh in the Critic, spoke but once all the way, and that was in the following ocular sentence : "*Wat is goed voor de man is ook goed voor de vrouw*—What is good for the husband is good for the wife ;" so similar in many instances are the Dutch and English languages, that some of our wittlings have observed that bad English will make very good Dutch. Mr. Siegenbeek, minister of the anabaptist church at Leyden, and the first who has occupied the chair for Dutch literature and eloquence in the university of that city, in which, by his genius and attainments, he reflects honour upon his country, has published a very ingenious work, entitled, *Verhandeling over de Nederduitsche Spelling*—a Treatise on Dutch Orthography, tending to render it uniform ; this work and another by the same author, called *Verhandeling over den Ionsted*, &c. or a Treatise on the Influence of Euphony or agreeable Sound, and of the Facility of Pronunciation, on the orthography of the Dutch language, were, at the instigation and by the able exertions of M. Vander Palm, the agent of national education, some years since published, for the im-

provement of the national language and poetry. The late Batavian government adopted the system of orthography proposed by M. Siegenbeek, and ordered it to be used by all the offices of administration.

DUTCH LANGUAGES.

It is generally understood that the language of Holland is divided into High and Low Dutch, whereas there is but one pure language, as in England, which is called *Neder Dutch*, the language of the Netherlands, or of a country lying very low. In Holland, as in every other country, there is a variety of provincial idioms; for instance, a raw native of Friesland would not be understood at Amsterdam.

TRAVELLING IN HOLLAND.

My companions continued smoking, and enjoying the delightful novelty of our aquatic conveyance and the surrounding scenery. We met several boats, and the dexterity by which the line was slackened by one boat, to permit the other, which kept its towing mast standing, to pass over the cord, according to the custom which governs this sort of *rencontre* on the canal, was admirable, as also was the ease and skill with which the skipper who has the care of the line throws it up on one side, and catches it on the other of a bridge under which the boat is obliged to pass.

At Overchie, a village about three miles, or one hour from Rotterdam, the houses are close to the water, and little children were playing upon its very margin without exciting any apprehension. In this town the prospect of a late dinner induced me to taste its gingerbread, for which Holland is very justly celebrated. Before every cottage, brass kettles and pans just cleaned were placed upon stools in the open air, or were polishing under the hands of their indefatigable owners; and even certain utensils shone with such resplendent brightness in the sun, that the well-known saying which the French whimsically apply to the grave and thoughtful, *Il est sérieux comme une pot de chambre*, would lose the fidelity of its resemblance here.

We passed by several curricles, a very common carriage in this part of Holland, the horses in rope harness, going to and from Rotterdam. In the roof of the boat were some ladies and gentlemen, who as well as I could discern through the smoke, seemed pleased to see me so with their country. The land all the way on each side was rich pasture. On our left, a short distance from Delft, we passed a cannon foundry, and on our right some potteries, where the Delft china, formerly much

prized all over Europe, and which Vandervelt and other eminent artists embellished with their pencils, used to be manufactured in great abundance. These potteries, since last war, have greatly declined, to the severe injury of the adjoining town.

Here, as in every inn in Holland, however humble, the guest has always the comfort of a silver fork placed by his side, and a tablecloth of snowy whiteness: in the room where I dined was a glass china cupboard, and every article within it bore shining testimony to its having received a due portion of diurnal care. Delft is a large but gloomy town, and as silent as a monastery, except in the street immediately leading to the Hague; upon quitting which, no sound was to be heard but that of mops and buckets: narrow, green, stagnant canals divide most of the streets, which are generally, for some little distance before the houses, paved with black and white marble. However the principal part of the town is handsome, having two spacious streets, with broad canals bordered with trees.

The navigation is interrupted from the Rotterdam entrance to that of the Hague, so that the water within it, presents no very animating object. In this town turf is principally burnt.

Although the taciturnity of the place would induce a stranger to think its population small, it reckons 13,000 inhabitants, 6,000 of whom, since the war, have been reduced to the class of paupers. I met with two or three inhabitants who spoke good English, and expressed in terms of feeling misery, the heavy losses and distresses which they had sustained by a rupture with England; yet, strange as it may appear, they seem to think well of their new government, and spoke with great esteem of their king, of whom they said they well knew, he felt the impolicy of a war with England as much as any Dutchman, and that he would rejoice at the hour, when the great political events which were passing in the other parts of the world, would admit of a renewal of amity and free intercourse with that country—they spoke of the government of the Stadtholder with contempt, and of the Republic with detestation.

I visited the new church, the tower of which is very fine, and of a prodigious altitude. The first object that excited my curiosity, was the tomb of the immortal Grotius, whose remains were brought here, after he expired at Rostock, in 1645, upon his return from the court of Christina, Queen of Sweden, to this, his native city. The tomb erected to his memory, is simple, but handsome; it consists of a medallion representing the head of this great man, and a child leaning upon an urn with a torch inverted. The epitaph in Latin is elegant, and expressive of the

merits and virtues it perpetuates. I regret upon opening my memorandums, to find my pencil copy of it so effaced as to be unintelligible: of this great civilian and general scholar, Aubere du Marier, who knew him very intimately said, "that he was tall, strong, and a well made man, and had a very agreeable countenance. With all these excellences of body, his mind was still more excellent. He was a man of openness, of veracity, and of honor, and so perfectly virtuous, that throughout his whole life he made a point of avoiding and of deserting men of bad character, but of seeking the acquaintance of men of worth, and persons distinguished by talents, not only of his own country, but of all Europe, with whom he kept up an epistolary correspondence.

The fate of Barneveldt is related with great spirit by Voltaire, who says, "But human affairs are ever chequered with good and evil." Mankind are so apt to deviate from their principles, that this republic (Holland) had nearly destroyed the liberty for which she had so bravely fought, and persecution boiled in the blood of a people, whose happiness and laws were founded on toleration. Two calvinistical doctors did what so many doctors have done in so many other places. Gomar and Arminius disputed most furiously at Leyden, about what neither of them understood. This produced dissensions in the United Provinces.

A charming anecdote is related of the admirable conduct of the widow of Barneveldt. After he had perished on the scaffold, his sons, René and William, entered into a conspiracy to revenge his death, in which they were discovered. William fled, but René was taken and condemned to die. His mother solicited his pardon of Prince Maurice, who replied, "It appears strange that you do that for your son, which you refused to do for your husband;" to which she nobly replied, "I did not ask pardon for my husband, because he was innocent; I ask it for my son, because he is guilty."

The view from the steeple of this church is esteemed the most beautiful in Holland, and is remarkably fine and extensive; but the beauty of the scenery is principally at a distance, as the land immediately surrounding the town is boggy, dotted with piles of white turf. The chimes of this church, or as they are called, the Carillons, are very numerous, consisting of four or five hundred bells, which are celebrated for the sweetness of their tones. This species of music is entirely of Dutch origin, and in Holland and the countries that formerly belonged to her, it can only be heard in great perfection. The French and Italians have never imitated the Dutch in this taste; we have made the attempt in some of our churches, but in such a miserably bungling manner, that the nerves of even a Dutch skipper would scarcely be able to endure it.

THE CARILLONS.

These carillons are played upon by means of a kind of keys communicating with the bells, as those of the piano forte and organ do with strings and pipes, by a person called the Carillonneur, who is regularly instructed in the science, the labour of the practical part of which is very severe, he being almost always obliged to perform in his shirt with his collar unbuttoned, and generally forced by exertion into a profuse perspiration, some of the keys requiring a two pound weight to depress them; after the performance, the Carillonneur is frequently obliged immediately to go to bed: by pedals communicating with the great bells, he is enabled with his feet to play the base to several sprightly and even difficult airs, which he performs with both his hands upon the upper species of keys, which are projecting sticks, wide enough asunder to be struck with violence and celerity by either of the two hands edgeways, without the danger of hitting the adjoining keys. The player uses a thick leather covering for the little finger of each hand, to prevent the excessive pain, which the violence of the stroke, necessary to produce sufficient sound, requires: these musicians are very dextrous, and will play pieces in three parts, producing the first and second treble with the two hands on the upper set of keys, and the base as before described. By this invention a whole town is entertained in every quarter of it; that spirit of industry which pervades the kingdom, no doubt originally suggested this sudorific mode of amusing a large population, without making it necessary for them to quit their avocations one moment to enjoy them. They have often sounded to my ear, at a distance, like the sounds of a very sweet hand-organ: but the want of something to stop the vibration of each bell, to prevent the notes of one passage from running into another, is a desideratum which would render this sort of music still more highly delightful. Holland is the only country I have been in, where the sound of bells was gratifying. The diurnal tone of our own on solemn occasions, and the horrible indiscriminating clashing of the bells of the Greek church in Russia, are at least to my ear intolerable nuisances. I afterwards learnt that the carillons at Amsterdam have three octaves, with all the semi-tones complete on the manual, and two octaves in the pedals; each key for the natural sound projects near a foot, and those for the flats and sharps, which are played several inches higher, only half as much. The British army was equally surprised and gratified, by hearing upon the carillons of the principal church at Altknaar, their favorite air of "God save the

king" played in a masterly manner, when they entered that town.

In this church is a superb monument raised to the memory of William the First, the great Prince of Orange, in the east end of the church, which is semicircular, and a range of semicircular pillars support the roof: within these pillars is a large space railed off, and paved with black and white marble, under which is the family vault of the House of Orange; in the center is the monument, a sarcophagus, on which is placed a marble figure of the above prince, in his robes after death: at his feet is a dog, the expression of whose countenance is very much admired; above is a marble canopy supported by four buttresses of white marble, and twenty columns of black and gold in fine stile: the epitaph, in small obscure characters, is inscribed upon a tablet held by two boys in bronze, and at each corner of the tomb stands a bronze figure, the first representing Liberty with a cap, inscribed with *aurea liberatas*; the second is Fortitude, the third Religion, and the fourth Justice, not blind, but ardently gazing upon the balance in her hand. Under an arch at the head of the tomb is a bronze statue of the same prince, and at the other end a figure of Fame just taking wing. The other internal parts of this edifice are adorned with the usual mortuary decorations in Holland, long sable lines of escutcheons. I am as little fond of descriptions of monuments; but I have been particular here, because the Dutch, with their accustomed frugality, do not much indulge in mausoleums and statues. In France, the late revolution, in its savage phrenzy, with hands still reeking with the blood of the dying, tore open the tombs of its princes, and their favorites, and disfigured the consecrated depository with the shattered fragments of their marble mausoleums: that revolution, which, with the guillotine in front, and the broken cross in the rear, threatened to spread over and waste the whole of civilized Europe, marched to Holland, where thousands flocked to its standard: but it there very rarely inebriated the mind, and never overpowered the national love of economy; it taught them to despise and expel their living princes, but with pious frugality they spared the costly asylums of their illustrious dead.

Not far from the old church, the tower of which is alarmingly out of its perpendicular, is the identical house in which William I. was murdered by a bigoted hireling of the King of Spain in 1584. A Dutch inscription, placed over two holes in the wall on the stairs, made by the pistol bullets after they had passed through his body, communicates the savage circumstance. The bigots of Spain celebrated the murderer as a martyr, and his

family were enobled, and pensioned. A solitary instance of honors being paid to a regicide.

The old church had not sufficient attractions to induce me to enter it. The tombs of Admirals Tromp and Heine are there. Opposite the new church, in the great square, is the Stadt or Town House, the front of which is extensive, and very curious: in this house are some excellent pictures by Frank Hals, who died in 1666: this artist is justly celebrated for the beauties of his colouring and penciling.

In the council chamber there is a fine composition by Bronchoort, who died in 1661, representing the judgment of Solomon, and another of Christ driving the money-changers out of the temple; the figures are finely finished, and the architecture, in which he excelled, truly admirable. In the great hall of the physicians and surgeons is a celebrated picture by Cornelius de Morn or Maan, who was born in this town, and who died in 1706: the subject of it is a representation of the most celebrated doctors and surgeons of his time: it is in the manner of Titian, and in high estimation. Michael Jansen Minevelt, who died in 1641, was also born in this town: he was an admirable portrait painter, and is said to have been in such high repute, and so indefatigable, that Sandrart, Descampe, and the authors of the *Abrégé de la Vie des Peintres* assert, that he painted at least ten thousand portraits, for the smallest of which he never received less than one hundred and fifty guilders, or fifteen pounds. In the surgeons' hall there is a fine picture by this artist.

In the Spin-house, or Bridewell, were several female prisoners, many of whom had been confined for several years, for respecting the genial laws of *nature* more than the sober laws of the *nation*, and some of them, for the same offence, had been publicly and severely flogged.—What a contradiction in this government does its *Spin* and its *Spill-houses*, present! In one place it sanctions prostitutes, and in another imprisons and scourges them!

PASSAGE TO THE HAGUE.

The stranger will find nothing to detain him in this melancholy town long. In Holland every traveller naturally becomes amphibious; the constant contemplation of so much water quickly engenders all the inclinations of a webfooted animal, and he soon feels out of his proper element when out of a canal. Right merrily did I follow my commissary and his wheelbarrow with my baggage through the whole town, until I reached the Hague gate, when my favorite conveyance, the treckschuyt, was ready to start. The boat-hall rung, all the party got on board, and away we glided, passing on each side of us the most lovely close scenery. Instead of seeing, as had been represented to me in England, a

dull monotonous scene of green canals, stunted willows, and from a solitary house or two, *foggy* merchants stupidly gazing in fixed attention upon *frog* water, the canal was enlivened with boats of pleasure and traffic continually passing and re-passing; the noble level road on the right, broad enough to admit four or five carriages abreast, thickly planted with rows of fine elms, the number of carriages and carriages, and horses, driving close to the margin of the water, the fine woods, beautiful gardens, country houses, not two of which were similar; the eccentricity of the little summer temples hanging over the edges of the canal; the occasional views of rich pasture land, seen as I saw them under a rich, warm sky, formed a *tout ensemble* as delightful as it was novel, and very intelligibly expressed our approach to the residence of sovereignty. The single ride from Delft to the Hague would alone have repaid the trouble and occasional anxiety I experienced in getting into, and afterwards out of the country.

All the principal country-houses have a wooden letter-box standing upon the margin of the canal, into which one of the boatmen, upon the treckschuyt being steered close to the adjoining bank, without stopping, drops the letters and parcels directed to the family residing there. In no part of the continent is social intercourse and communication so frequent, cheap, and certain.

For keeping the dams and roads in repair, turnpikes are established at proper distances, and the care of their repair is confided to directors, who are always gentlemen of high respectability, and receive a fixed salary for their services. The principal roads are kept in a good condition; and, on account of the flatness of the country, are very easy for the horses, but the bye roads are intolerably bad.

In the steerage I found three very handsome and well bred Dutch young ladies seated, one of whom spoke English very well; they all insisted upon my being an Englishman the moment I entered the boat: how they could think so, the spirit of physiognomy, if their be such a spirit, must explain; for in my best hours of health and delight, John Bull would scarcely acknowledge me for one of his family.

My charming companions talked much of Shakspeare and Milton, with both of whom they seemed to be familiar. I was so pleased with my fair voyageurs, who talked, sung, and laughed, with so much talent, taste, and vivacity, that our two hours or six miles, the distance from Delft to the Hague passed rapidly away, and tempted me not to quit the vessel to visit the village of Ryswick, which lies about half way, and is only about half a mile from the canal, and, I am told, abounds with beauty and richness of scenery. It is known to the political world for the cele-

brated peace concluded there at a little palace of William III, called the House of Neubourg, after a nine years' war, on the 20th September, 1697, between Louis XIV. and the confederate powers, called the treaty of Ryswick. I mention this as a guide for strangers who may follow me, and who may not be fascinated as I was by my situation in the boat, and content with the highly cultivated and embellished scenery around me. A man must be in bad humour with nature indeed, who can pass, in the summer, from Delft to the Hague without emotions of strong delight.

As we approached the Hague, the scenery became more refined and beautiful, and the last light of a setting sun purpled the lofty edifices of that celebrated city: it was quite dusk as we passed the water-houses, in which the royal yachts are contained, the rich gilded carving of which was just visible through the grated doors; and after gliding along the suburbs, which were well lighted, though not in this respect comparable with London, I disembarked, bade adieu to my charming companions, and proceeded with my usual attendant, through the greater part of the city to the *Mareschal de Turenne*, an excellent hotel, but at a most inconvenient distance from the place where the Delft boats stop, and where the others for Leyden or Harlem start from.

The morning after my arrival there was a grand review of the Dutch troops, who presented a very soldierly appearance; that of the body-guard, both horse and infantry, was very superb in military appointments. I was well informed that the king felt so secure in his government, that there was not at this time twenty French soldiers in the country, and that, accompanied by his queen, he was attending to his health at the waters of Wisbaden, in the south of Germany. The French interest, however, was predominant, and it was indispensably necessary that the passport of every foreigner should be countersigned by the French consul, whose fiat upon all such occasions was final.

The king had been at the Hague, or rather at his palace in the wood adjoining, only about six weeks, in the course of which, I was credibly informed, he had displayed uncommon activity and talent in the discharge of the great duties of his station. Although uninvalid, he was at his bureau with his ministers every morning at six o'clock, which he never quitted until the business of the day was completed. The poor-laws occupied much of his attention, and they are, I hear, to undergo a considerable amelioration. I have already mentioned his abolition of useless offices, sinecures, and unmerited pensions, the reduction of excessive salaries, and an extension of the time devoted to the service

of the state in the public offices. These advantages could only be expected to flow from that vast power which revolutions, after their effervescence had subsided, generally deposit with some fortunate individual, who, if he has talent and good inclinations, is enabled to consult the prosperity of a state, by measures at once prompt, summary, and efficacious, unretarded by forms, clashing interests, or hoary prejudices. The first of a new has ever this advantage over the last of an old dynasty.

Sn John then enters upon an elaborate investigation of the merits of the last and the present constitution of Holland, which it would be quite foreign to our purpose to notice. Speaking of Louis the present king, he says, page 150, the king has given general satisfaction by the choice he has made of the persons he has nominated to fill the public offices; and if the wishes of one who trespassed a little irregularly upon their shores can avail, the brave, frugal, and indomitable Hollanders will derive happiness, and, when peace is restored to Europe, prosperity under their new government.

The revenue attached to the stadtholderate was nominally 18,000*l.* per annum; but by the great patronage and influence belonging to it, no doubt it must have been considerably augmented, as also by the revenues arising from other hereditary territories of the stadtholder; but after all, the income of the stadtholderate was scarcely sufficient to support the dignity of the situation, powerful and important as it last became. The king, in addition to his revenue, has an enormous private fortune: the savings which he has effected in the state reconcile the Dutch to this liberal, but perhaps not excessive allowance made for the support of his dignity.

How the Hague could be called a village, in all its meridian splendor, is a matter of surprise: it derived its name from s'Cravenhage, or the Count's Wood, on account of a wood which formerly grew here; and which formed, some centuries since, a part of the domains of the Counts of Holland. The following anecdote will shew the simplicity which reigned in this great and beautiful city in former times. When Louisa de Coligny was coming to be married to Prince William at the Hague, the Dutch sent an open post waggon to meet her, and she entered the city seated on a plank. towards the latter end of Prince Maurice's days, and during Frederic-Henry's lifetime, the Hague became a very agreeable place, and the resort of people of the first distinction,

BUILDINGS AT THE HAGUE.

In my rambles round this city, I was much impressed with the elegance and spaciousness of the buildings; every object seemed to have partaken of the spirit and magnificence of a court. But there was a solemnity in the splendor. It reminded one, of looking into a magnificent ball-room after the greater part of the company had departed, and the lustres were dying away. If the Orange family had been entitled to sympathy, the scene would have led me to feel and think for them. Its noble buildings, its spacious streets, gracefully vaulted, shaded with trees, and divided by canals, the variety of surrounding scenery, its proximity to the sea, its elevated situation, and the purity of its air, renders the Hague the most charming town in Holland. The first place I visited was the palace of the last of the stadtholders. It is a vast pile of houses, many of them somewhat ancient, surrounded by a canal, without which and a pipe, paradise itself would have no charms for a Dutchman: over the canal are several draw-bridges; and the whole has a very pleasing effect seen from the spot where I took the view of it. On one side of a quadrangle is part of a new palace, built by the late stadtholder, and which, had it been finished, would have been handsome and princely; but the troubles in Holland have prevented its completion.

In part of this building there is a noble gothic hall, much resembling Westminster-hall, and very large; on each side little shops were arranged, similar to those in Exeter 'Change: it is converting into a chapel for the king. There were here formerly the prince's cabinet of natural history and museum of rarities, consisting of a tolerable collection of shells, petrefactions, precious stones, fossils, minerals, and birds. This collection has been removed to Paris, although, from all I could learn, scarcely worthy of so much trouble: it, however, furnished the first elements of knowledge to Camper, one of the most profound geniuses which the United Provinces ever produced, and also professor Pallas, who has been called the Pliny of Russia. The French offered to re-sell this cabinet to the Dutch government, who declined becoming the purchasers; a tolerable proof of its inferiority. The prince's cabinet of pictures was very select and valuable, and was enriched by the productions of Titian, Holbein, Rembrandt, Vandyk, Gerard Dow, Metzio, Polemburgh, and other illustrious artists. On the confiscation of the property of the exiled Stadtholder, the Dutch government, for the purpose of promoting the polite arts, formed this collection of pictures, esteemed one of the most valuable in Europe, into a national gallery, and set apart an annual sum for the augmentation of it,

and deposited it in a fine suit of apartments in the house in the wood, where a director of ability, and assistants, were appointed to superintend it: but the French soon afterwards transferred the best of them to that magnificent depot of the fruits of conquest, the Louvre at Paris. The first person sent by Napoleon to select for his gallery was unequal to his office, and left some excellent works behind him, which, upon "a second shaking of the tree" by another and more able inspector, were collected, and sent off to that colossal collector of works of art. Amongst several landscapes by Vernet was the finest he ever painted, the subject, the waterfall of Tivoli. It is a curious circumstance that there is not one fine private collection at the Hague.

I was much delighted with the Voorhout, considered the principal street, in which are many elegant and classical buildings, forming complete contrasts to the leaning mercantile structures of Rotterdam. In this street the most elegant houses were those which formerly belonged to the Prince Wielburgh, who married the last Prince of Orange's sister, and to the French ambassador, formerly occupied by the British minister: but the most beautiful part of the Hague is the Vyverburgh; it is a vast oblong square, adorned with a noble walk or mall, strewed with broken shells, and shaded by avenues of trees on one side, and on the other by the palace, and a large basin of water called the Vyver, almost a quarter of a mile in length, variegated by an island of poplars in its center. This mall is the place of fashionable resort, and, on the evening of the day I saw it, was adorned with several groupes of lovely women attired in the French fashion, which generally prevails amongst the genteel families in Holland. Besides these there are many other very noble ones, and all remarkably clean, but the canals are almost all of them green and stagnant, and at this season emitted an unpleasant effluvia. Here, as in many cities in France, the armorial ensigns of distinguished families, which used to dignify the front of their dwellings, have been cut away, and many a shield remains despoiled of its quarterings. Some of them, since the new order of things has occurred, have been restored. In a square planted on all sides with trees the parade is held.

DUTCH FEMALES AND CHILDREN.

As Lady Wortley Montagu, in her accustomed sprightliness of style, has mentioned with some appearance of disgust, the white fishy faces of the Dutch women, I beg to observe, that at the Hague I saw several very pretty females: in general they possessed a transparent delicacy of countenance, but as generally wanted expression. An English gentleman who had just re-

turned from Italy, where he had been accustomed for several years to the warm voluptuous brunettes of that beautiful country, was uncommonly delighted with the fair faces of the Dutch ladies; but female beauty does not begin to expand itself till after the imprisonment and regimen of the nursery are past. Pretty and health children are rarely to be seen in Holland: in general they look pale and squallid, owing to an abominable system of rearing them; they are accustomed for the first two or three months to respire the atmosphere of a room, the windows of which are never opened to receive the freshness of the morning air; to wash them with refreshing cold water would be considered as certain infanticide; the miserable infant is swathed round with flannel rollers, until it becomes as motionless as a mummy; and over these ligatures there is always a vast flannel wrapper folded three or four times round the body, and fastened at the bottom of its feet: afterwards for many months it is loaded with woollen garments, and when at length it is permitted to try for what purpose legs were originally constructed, it is cased in an additional wrapping of flannel, to prevent the dreaded consequences of freely inhaling the salubrious air.

As it was summer, I can only speak from information of an equally wild and destructive custom, which obtains in the winter, of suffering the children to sit over the chauffeepies or stoves, which frequently supplants the ruddy tints of health by a white parboiled appearance. I saw several of these chauffeepies, from which the little pots that in cold weather contain the burning turf, had been withdrawn, used by the ladies as footstools. Whilst the men warm themselves with the smoke of tobacco from above, the ladies to recompence themselves for not using that indulgence, take care to fumigate themselves below, by placing, in the proper season, these ignited stoves under their petticoats, and resemble the glow-worm, which carries his fire in his tail: the cats and kittens, from the genial warmth of the climate, are glad to take shelter in this warm mysterious sanctuary. The ladies and the lower classes of females are always remarkably neat about the feet: the petticoats of the latter are in general very short, display a well proportioned leg, clean blue stockings, and a slipper without any heel-piece, or a sabot.

THE WOOD.

In my way to the palace in the Wood, near this square, I passed by a vast triumphal arch made of wood, painted to imitate stone, and adorned with a number of complimentary inscriptions in Latin, in honor of the king and queen, who passed through it on the 23d of June last, when they made their public entry; and

in a vast field adjoining to the wood was a lofty temporary obelisk of the same materials, which formed one of the principal objects of a magnificent fête recently given by the French commander in chief in honour of their majesties, which was conducted in the highest style of Parisian taste. The day when I visited the wood was remarkably fine—this spot, so dear to the Dutch, is nearly two English miles long, about three quarters of a mile broad, and contains a fine display of magnificent oaks growing in native luxuriance. Antony Waterloo made the greatest part of his studies from this spot and its environs. The ground upon which it grows, and the country about it, undulate a little, a circumstance of agreeable novelty, and the whole is a truly delightful walk, more romantic and unbiagious than our mall of St. James's, and surpassed only by the garden of the Thuilleries. This wood has been held sacred with more than pagan piety. War and national want, that seldom spare in their progress, committed no violations here. Although the favorite place of royal recreation, yet, in the fury of the revolution, not a leaf trembled but in the wind. Phillip II. in the great war with Spain, issued his mandate for preserving it: hostile armies have marched through it without offering it a wound, and the axe of the woodman has never resounded in it. Even children are taught or whipt into veneration for it, so that their mischievous hands never stript it of a bough. Once, however, it is recorded, that at a period of great state necessity, in 1576, their high mightinesses sat in judgment upon its noble growth, and doomed it to fall: the moment their decree was known, the citizens flew to the meeting, remonstrated with a degree of feeling which did honour to their taste; and upon learning that the object of its doom was to raise a certain sum to assist in replenishing the nearly exhausted coffers of the republic, they immediately entered into a contribution, and presented the amount to the "high and mighty masters" of the sacred grove.

It has been asserted by some travellers, that the Dutch treasure this spot more from national pride than feeling, and that they are more disposed to preserve than to enjoy it. To this remark I have only to offer, that I saw a considerable number of equestrian and pedestrian groupes, who appeared to relish its shaded roads, and sequestered walks with great delight. The royal residence is to the right at the end of the wood. Upon my asking a Dutchman which path led to the "house in the wood," the only appellation by which, in the time of the stadtholder, it was known, he sharply replied, "I presume you mean the palace in the wood." This building is merely fit for the residence of a country gentleman, and has nothing princely about it, except

the centry boxes at the foot of the flight of stairs ascending to the grand entrance: two tall and not very perpendicular poles, from the tops of which is stretched a cord, suspending in the centre a large lamp, stand on each side of the house in front of the palace; on the left are the coach-houses and stables, which are perfectly plain, and are just separated from the court-road by a small stunted plantation: there was a very handsome carriage of the king's in the coach-house, without arms or cyphers, of a pale blue colour, which, with silver lace, is the colour of the new royal livery. The carriage had every appearance of having been built in England. Excepting this, I never before saw a carriage, unless appropriated for state occasions, belonging to any crowned head on the continent, that an Englishman of taste and opulence would be satisfied with. Even the carriages of Napoleon, built in a city so celebrated for its taste in design, and beauty of workmanship, as Paris, are clumsy and unpleasant to the eye. Although it was Sunday, the sound of workmen, actively engaged in modernizing the palace after the Parisian taste, issued from almost every window. Some Dutchmen who were contemplating the front of the house, shook their heads at this encroachment of the sabbath. In consequence of the internal arrangement not being finished, strangers were not admitted: the walks on the outside of the gardens are formal and insipid. The gardens themselves are handsomely disposed, and kept in great order, and the whole of the premises is insulated by stagnant canals crossed with draw-bridges.

In this palace, amongst many other precious works of art, was the celebrated picture of King William the Third, who appointed the famous Godfrey Scalken, when he was in London, to paint his portrait by candle-light: the painter placed a taper in the hands of his majesty, to hold it in a situation most favourable to the designs of the artist, during which the tallow melted and dropped on the finger of the monarch, who endured it with great composure, for fear of embarrassing the painter, who very tranquilly continued his work, without offering to pause for a minute. It is not much to the credit of the prince of the country to record, that this blunt enthusiast for his art lost poor Scalken the favour of the court, and of persons of fashion, and he retired to the Hague, where he had a prodigious demand for his small paintings.

The furniture of this, which, as well as of the other palaces, was superb, but old fashioned, was sold by the French, upon the pretence that their arms were directed against the Prince of Orange personally. In this palace the Stattholder and his family used to indulge his subjects in that ridiculous custom of eating

before them on certain days : a custom which was a fit appendage to another, that of keeping dwarfs and fools about the royal person. How this stupid usage came to be adopted at first I know not, for one would naturally think that the situation least calculated to inspire awe and veneration, those great supports of royalty, amongst subjects towards their rulers, would be that in which a mere animal appetite is gratified. In England such splendid folly has been long discontinued.

Upon my return to my hotel at one o'clock, the dinner hour, I found a very agreeable party, composed of foreigners from different countries, and an excellent *table d'hôte* : over the chimney-piece was a good equestrian portrait of the famous Duke of Cumberland, who lodged at this house occasionally during the campaigns of 1747. After dinner, in company with a very amiable gentlemanlike Englishman, whom I met at the *table d'hôte*, I set off in one of the carriages, many of which are always ready to convey passengers, for about the value of sixpence English, for Scheveling, a village which every traveller should visit, on account of the beauty of the avenue leading to it, which is nearly two miles perfectly straight, and thickly planted with beech, limes, and oaks ; at the end of which superb vista the church of Scheveling appears. On the sandy ground on each side this avenue are several birch thickets, and it abounds with the *Aiera canescens*, *Hippophae rhamnoides*, a singular dwarf variety of *Ligustrum vulgare* (Privet), the true *Arundo epigejos* of Linnæus (that is, *Calamagrostis*), and a number of heath plants, mixed with others usually found in marshes. Scarcely is there so small a spot, where Flora presents such opposite variety, and which the fluctuating moisture of the soil can alone account for. Among the rarer species are *convallaria multiflora* and *polygonatum*, with *gentiana cruciata*, which is not a native of England.

SCHEVELING.

The Dutch value this beautiful avenue as much as they do their Wood, and care is taken to preserve it from violation. At the entrance, in a most romantic spot, is the turnpike-gate, where all passengers except the fishermen of Scheveling, pay a fraction of a farthing for permission to enter; and here are stuck up orders, threatening with punishment those who may attempt to injure in the smallest degree this consecrated forest. At short intervals, cautionary inscriptions are placed in conspicuous situations, to warn the mischievous "apple-munching urchins" from cutting the smallest twig.

Constantine Huygens, brother to the celebrated mathematician and mechanist of that name, had the honor of designing this avenue, in which there are many stately trees, upwards of a century and a half old: a terrible storm, which took place a few years since, laid about fifty of these noble objects low, to the great grief and consternation of the country. Here, and perhaps here only, throughout Holland, the traveller may be gratified by the sounds of a running brook. The foot paths on each side were crowded with pedestrians of both sexes, in their holiday clothes; and the slanting rays of a brilliant sun flashing through the openings in the branches of the limes, beech trees, and oaks, upon a crowd of merry faces, jolting in the most whimsical carts and waggons, to their favourite spot of carousal, had a very pleasing and picturesque effect.

The village is very neat and pretty; at the end of the vista, large sand-hills rising near the base of the church, preclude the sight of the ocean, which, when they are surmounted, opens upon the view with uncommon majesty. The beach, which we saw in high perfection on account of its being low water, is very firm to the tread, and forms a beautiful walk of nearly six miles in extent. The ocean was like a mirror, and fishing vessels were reclining on the sand in the most picturesque forms, just surrounded with water; their owners with their wives and children, were parading up and down in their sabbath suits, and the whole sand for a mile was a fine marine mall, covered with groupes who appeared as capable of appreciating the beauty of the scene, as the worshippers of the Steyne at Brighton, or of the Parade at Bath. The Dutch are said to have an antipathy to sea-air; but this I found not to be generally true: certain it is, that they are not fond of sea-bathing, otherwise this beach would be crowded with bathing machines, and the country above it with lodging-houses.

Water is no novelty to a Dutchman, and he prefers, and there seems some sense in his preference, his neat, commodious country-house, and his gardens, and all the comforts of life about him, to the pleasure of bathing, and contemplating a waste of waters from the windows of a cheerless inn or lodging-house. An English frigate, which lay off at a considerable distance, excited a good deal of attention, and added to the beauty of the scene. Upon quitting the beach we enter an inn which overlooked a place of great resort, every room of which was crowded and filled with tobacco smoke. The state of Mr. Fox's health formed the leading feature of the political discourse. "Herr Fock," as he was called, was frequently repeated at every table. Opposite to where we sat, a young Dutch couple were making violent love; they kissed and devoured dry salted fish, and drank punch with an enthu-

siasm, which presented to our imagination the warmest association of Cupid and the jolly God. John Van Goyen, who died in 1656, and was so justly celebrated for the transparency of his colouring of water, made this spot the frequent subject of his charming pencil. Dutch tradition dwells with delight upon a cock and a bull story respecting the celebrated flying chariot which used to sail upon those lands, and on the surrounding country. It was said to have been made by Stevinus for Prince Maurice: it is thus described and commented upon in a curious old description of Holland: "The form of it was simple and plain; it resembled a boat moved upon four wheels, of an equal bigness, had two sails, was steered by a rudder placed between the two hindmost wheels, and was stopt either by letting down the sails, or turning it from the wind. This noble machine has been celebrated by many great authors, as one of the most ingenious inventions later ages have produced. Bishop Wilkins, in his *Treatise of Mechanical Motions*, mentions several great men who described and admired it. Grotius mentions an elegant figure of it in copper, done by Geyneus; and Herodius, in one of his large maps of Asia, gives another sketch of the like chariots used in China." Incredible as this story appears, one would be disposed to think, that a man of Grotius's celebrity for learning and truth, would scarcely have eulogized the invention, had he doubted its existence. Upon a level, hard, straight road, uninterrupted by trees and buildings, such a piece of ingenuity might perhaps prove successful as a mechanic experiment, but utterly impossible ever to be made serviceable.

The coast of Scheveling is considered very dangerous in rough weather: the spire of the church here and those of Gravesande and Monster, three leagues to the south, serve for land-marks; yet, owing to the coast of the province of Holland lying very low and flat, they are scarcely discernable three or four leagues at sea: for want of sand banks to break the force of the sea, the coast is much exposed, and the fishermen are obliged, after their return, to haul their vessels on rollers up the beach beyond the water's reach: this labour must be very great, for many of them are from twenty to thirty-five tons burthen.

This place has been at different periods subject to dreadful irruptions of the sea, particularly in the year 1574, when it broke in, and carried away 124 houses: Scheveling has its portion of historic celebrity. In 1650, the expatriated Charles II. after a long exile, embarked from this place for Scotland, to which he was invited, with a promise of assistance in recovering the rest of his dominions.

On our return we met groups of little girls, whose short petti-

coats and protuberances on all sides, looked very grotesque. Many of the Dutch girls of the lower order wear twenty or thirty yards of flannel tied round their hips. In the village is a pauper house for the poor and aged, founded in 1614. On a week day, the road from Scheveling is more characteristically gay, being covered with fishwomen running and singing to the Hague, under loads of soles, cod, turbot, &c. to which place I returned, highly delighted with my excursion. In the neighbourhood of that city are several fine flower-gardens. The passion of the Dutch, for flowers, is well known.

THE PALACE.

Upon our return to the Hague, we visited a palace of the *ci-devant* hereditary prince of Orange; it forms three sides of an oblong square towards the street; it was converting into a public office; behind are some pretty gardens, one of which is less formal than Dutch gardens in general. I concluded the day by walking round a great part of the town, the whole of which is surrounded with avenues of trees, similar to, but not so fine as the boulevards of Rouen. In the fish-market, the next day, I saw several storks, who were parading about in perfect security, of which they seemed to be thoroughly satisfied, and were every now and then regaled by the offal of the fish. The prejudices of the people have consecrated these birds on account of their being considered as the *gardes du corps* of republican liberty. The Greeks and Romans regarded them with peculiar veneration: and in Thessaly the destroyer of one was punished with exile. No animal but this discovers any token of fondness for the authors of its existence after it has attained strength and discrimination sufficient to provide for itself. The stork is well known to evince an exemplary regard for its aged parents, whom it defends from attack, and furnishes with food; and well did it deserve the Roman appellation of "*pia avis*." The Dutch frequently erect frames of wood upon the tops of their houses to encourage these their favorite birds to build their nests there. Perhaps another reason why these birds are so much cherished is that, which renders them popular in Germany, namely on account of their quick perception of fire, and the noise they make when it takes place. If the Dutch really believed that the storks could exist only in a pure republic, they must for some time past have renounced their credulity, for these birds have survived the visits of the French, and seem to have no objection to be enrolled among the subjects of the new king. It is said that they assemble at certain periods and hold consultations. Certain it is that the crows in England frequently meet with all the appearance

of a deliberate body. A gentleman of distinguished talents and veracity assured me, that he once observed a vast body of crows assembled near his country house, that after making a great deal of noise, one of them moved slowly into the middle, soon after which the rest fell upon him and pecked him to death. The quails are another species of privileged birds in Holland, particularly in Guelderland, where they are preserved with superstitious care in cages suspended on the outsides of the houses. The swan is too much venerated here, and the raven is greatly cherished at Nimwegen.

The traveller will be well remunerated for his trouble in ascending the top of the tower of St. Jacques, the only high devotional building in the Hague, except the new church: to obtain permission to do so, it is necessary to apply to the principal magistrate of the police, the reason for which precaution I could not learn. The view from this elevation is exquisitely beautiful; below, on one side lay expanded the square, the venerable pile of the town palace, its superb bason, the noble streets leading toward the wood, and the spires of distant villages fading in the mist of the horizon; whilst, on the other side, stretched the avenues of Scheveling, terminated by the blue and sparkling ocean.

A whimsical little penalty followed this gratification: at the hotel where I resided, a Dutch waiter attended me, who imposed upon his master to believe that he spoke English very fluently, in consequence of which he was selected to wait upon all English and American visitors: the English language of this personage was a ridiculous collection of the heads, legs, wings, and tails of the English words, and mingled together with all the confusion of a gibletpye. Upon my expressing to this flippanit gentleman my wish to ascend the tower of the church, he said, interrupting me, "oh, de roof de roof." I acquiesced and away he flew; about an hour afterwards he returned in high perspiration with a billet, which instead of proving to be an order to view the town and country from the roof of the tower, was an acknowledgment of money for the *ruif* of the treckschuyt for Leyden the day following, viz. the whole of the cabin he had engaged and paid the amount of for me.

In Holland the bee-hive of industry; every available source of service is made use of, so that dogs, and even goats, are not suffered to pick the bone, or eat the bread of idleness. Most of the little wares and merchandizes, and particularly fish, are drawn by the former, who are properly harnessed for the occasion to little carts, whilst the latter are yoked to infantine waggons and carriages, to air and exercise little children in. It is really astonishing to see what weight these animals will draw after them; nothing can exceed

their docility, and for their labor, the Hollander, who is remarkable for his humanity to the dumb creation, feeds them well, and and lodges them in his house very comfortably. Owing to the great care paid to their dogs, the canine madness seldom appears amongst them. On Sundays they are permitted to refresh and enjoy themselves, and never shew any disposition to escape from their lot of industry. In their farms, cows and oxen are always used in draft, and display every appearance of receiving the kindest treatment from their masters.

THE THEATRE.

The theatre at the Hague is tastefully arranged and supplied with a tolerable set of French comedians. The centre box is appropriated for the royal family, and is elegantly fitted up. Before the conversion of the republic into a kingdom, when the government resided in the hands of the Batavian directory, the ornaments of the box which was allotted to them, was very unworthy of the rank of the personages for whose accommodation it was reserved: a piece of paper, on which was written, "*Le logis du directoire Batave*," and pasted on the box door, alone announced the dignity of its destination. The usual national spirit of economy used to display itself in the Dutch theatre, where, to prevent an useless consumption of tallow, whenever the musicians quitted the orchestra, they were bound by contract to extinguish the lights by which they read their music. In many tradesmens' houses at this day in Holland, winter courtships are carried on in the dark, the union of warm love and rigid economy being considered a very laudable conjunction.

If we are to give credit to the ridiculous story which is still believed at a village called Loosdruyen, about three miles from the Hague, the ladies are far from being economical in breeding. A Dutch author has gone so far as to declare, that he had seen the 365 children of the Countess of Heenesberg, and with pleasant mimicness describes them to be of the size of shrimps, and Erasmus believed the story. Those who have the hardihood to differ from such authorities, explain away the miracle by stating, that on the *third day of January*, the beggar wished the countess, who expected to lie-in every hour, might have as many children as there had been days in the year, and that she on that day was delivered of *three* children.

The Hague was once celebrated for its many elegant, and especially for its literary societies; the latter have declined, whilst those of France have flourished and improved, amidst the frightful fluctuations of revolutionary tumult. Erasmus, Grotius, and Boerhaave, have conferred immortality upon the letters

of Holland, as they would upon those of any nation; but the literary glory of the country seems not to have spread upon the demise of these illustrious sages. Hooft, Vondel, and Antonides, are known in Holland, but not out of it; and we have heard but faintly of Huygens, Graveszande, and Vanderveen in physic; of Voet in jurisprudence, and Burman and Gronovius in the belles lettres.

I was not much surprised that the splendor of the Hague was principally confined to its buildings, although it as been so often in other times, celebrated for its magnificence and the expense of its inhabitants: the revolution expelled its hereditary princes dispersed its nobles, and visited every description of society with more or less distress. However, I was informed by those who were enabled to compare, that it is again rearing its head. Before the revolution, sumptuous equipages and various other characteristics of polished luxury were displayed in almost every street; and the foreign ministers vied with each other in costly splendor: during the operation of that political hurricane scarce any other carriage was to be seen save a few crazy fiacres, and every servant stript of his livery. At present, society seems to be returning to many of its original habits, and some handsome equipages appeared in different parts of the town; yet, upon the whole, the first impression of its gloom was never effaced.

STATE OF LITERATURE.

Upon enquiry after the present state of literature at this place I found it was considered at a very low ebb: the press of the Hague was once justly celebrated, but has of late emitted little more than a few pamphlets of inconsiderable merit. Before the revolution there were several capital booksellers' shops, of which I could only discover two; the books in their shops, apparently the remains of declining literary traffic, were neither very numerous nor very valuable. The booksellers formerly found very ample encouragement in the affluence of the court, and many petty German princes who selected the Hague for their residence. It has been asserted that as the Hague contained the seat of the executive government and of the representative bodies during the revolution, it suffered much less than any other town in the republic: but this I was well assured was not the case, because the commercial towns still derived resources from their commerce and enterprize, through the medium of neutral bottoms and other circuitous modes of traffic, notwithstanding the severity of British blockades and vigilance of British cruisers.

After spending some days very pleasantly at the Hague, I proceeded to the Leyden treckschuyt, which lay at a great distance

from the hotel, where I found, from the blunder of the waiter before detailed, that I was considered as a personage of considerable consequence, on account of my having engaged the whole of the roof to myself. The day was brilliantly fine, and nothing could be more delightful than my passage to Leyden: for two miles and a half the left bank of the canal presented an unbroken succession of handsome country houses and highly cultivated grounds, which although laid out like so many vegetable problems, abounded with a variety of forms, which, as they were clad in luxuriant green, were very agreeable. Many of these spots were graced by the acacia and Weymouth pine, to which the soil and climate seemed to be congenial. On the other side were rich meadows, whose vivid green seemed to rival that of the emerald, and corn fields yellow with harvest.

APPROACH TO LEYDEN.

The blunder of the waiter added not a little to the delights of my passage, for I sat a solitary grandee upon the top of the cabin, without a soul to interrupt the happy frame of mind formed by the lovely prospects on every side of me. In this agreeable manner three hours and a half passed away with feathered fleetness, and at the end of a long avenue of trees and a line of water, the spires and elevated buildings of Leyden appeared. We stopped about half way from the Hague at Leydehendaan, a very neat pretty village, the neighbourhood of which abounds with pleasure houses and gardens. The country as I approached Leyden appeared to be thickly wooded, and displayed the novel variety of a gentle undulation of ground. After passing through a beautiful boulevard, and crossing some drawing bridges, I entered the elegant city of Leyden through the white gate, and proceeded to a very comfortable hotel in the principal street, called the Broad street, the length, spaciousness, and beauty of which entitles it to the highest admiration: there is no canal in it, and the buildings on each side are very handsome, many of them splendid mansions. This seat of learning is considered to be one of the handsomest in Holland, and next in size to Amsterdam; the entrance to it is through seven stone gates, at each of which is a draw bridge: the town is surrounded with a rampart, and a deep broad canal, and is adorned by beautiful shady walks. The number of bridges in this city is astonishing, they are said to exceed one hundred and forty-five of stone, and railed with iron. It has also many canals, the most beautiful of which is the Rapenburg. It has been compared by travellers to Oxford, but I cannot see any resemblance, except in its being devoted to learning and consequently presenting many of those features of mediæ-

tion and consequent tranquillity, which are to be found in places destined to similar objects: but in its fortification, its buildings, streets, and canals, there is unquestionably no resemblance. The channels or gutters of the Broad street are covered with boards which open like a trap door, into which the moment any dirt is lodged, it is removed by persons appointed for that purpose; and lofty common pumps, with large brass ornaments constantly scoured and kept bright, are placed in different parts of it, to supply the inhabitants and to purify the street, of which they are not a little proud. The fame of Lucas Van Leyden, made the stadhous or town-hall the object of my first visit; it is a vast gothic building, presenting a very long irregular front, in a very uncouth stile of architecture, surmounted by a small steeple, which is crowded with carillons, and stands in the centre of the Broad street. As I ascended the grand staircase, a painter was giving a finishing touch to some large stone lions, which by way of blending them with the stone colour of the rest of the building, he had painted *vividly red*. In one of the apartments, which was very heavy and gloomy, I beheld the celebrated production of Lucas Van Leyden, or Hagens, who was born here in 1494, and died in 1533. This picture is in three divisions, the two external smaller ones being made like folding doors, to close if necessary over the middle one. The subject is the last judgment, for which vast sums of money have been repeatedly offered to the magistrates of the town and refused. I must confess I felt no more pleasure in contemplating this picture than what arose from its great antiquity. There was a great number of figures in it: the females are wholly destitute of beauty, at the same time there is a freedom in the outline; many of their limbs appear to be elongated, and every head seems to have been taken from the same subject, and wholly destitute of expression; however, considering the early period in which the artist flourished, it is a very curious and valuable production.

In the justice hall is a celebrated picture of Harel de Moor, who was born in this town in 1656: the subject Brutus condemning his sons, the colouring and finishing of which are very beautiful. De Moor had great and highly merited honors paid to him by various princes and distinguished personages, particularly by the emperor of Germany, who directed his ambassador Count Singendoff to engage him to paint the portraits of Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough on horseback, with which his imperial patron was so gratified, that he conferred upon him the honor of knighthood, and nobly rewarded him in a more substantial manner for his admirable production: he had also the honor of painting that mighty savage of the North, Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy.—Under the picture of B

some elegant Latin verses; there is also a large picture representing the bravery of its citizens, who are rendered immortal in the page of history, for the heroic valour they displayed during a siege, which in the year 1573, for five months, visited this place with all the horrors of war, disease, and famine. The historian can scarcely do adequate justice to these heroes. After the Spaniards had been compelled to raise the siege of Alkmaar, they determined upon directing their forces against Leyden, from the trenches of which they were bravely repulsed by Count Louis of Nassau, brother to the then Prince of Orange; but having been reinforced, they returned to the attack: when the Spanish general, Francis Valdey, discovering that he could not take the place by storm, resolved upon reducing it by famine, and a scene of horror ensued which baffles the powers of the pen to describe. The Spanish General, Frederic of Toledo, son of the execrable Duke of Alva, repulsed a body of English auxiliaries who were coming to the relief of the besieged, in consequence of which the blockade was so vigilantly conducted, that the wretched inhabitants could derive no provisions from without. In this dreadful dilemma, they drew lots to determine which should fall each day to afford sustenance to the rest with their bodies; and it is said that the spirit of patriotism ran so high, that many of them anticipated this desperate alternative, and voluntarily slew themselves to furnish food to their brave fellow-citizens and soldiers. An extraordinary female patriot, of the name of Kenneva, headed the women, led them to the ramparts, where they assisted the nearly exhausted soldiery in working the cannon, and displayed that enthusiastic courage which great occasions will generally find lodged in that bosom which is the seat of every gentle, every tender feeling, and ought only to heave with the tenderest emotions. Many of them stabbed themselves, to assist in preserving the survivors, and expiring exclaimed, "See, my poor valiant friends, your provision for the rest of the day." But notwithstanding these terrible sacrifices, and supplies of human flesh, many thousands of the garrison and burghers perished. The Spaniards, having been informed of their situation, again summoned them to surrender, and allowed a truce of an hour for deliberation, during which a consultation was held, the unanimous determination of which contained the following reply: "Tell your arrogant general, that we shall not want the means of life whilst a left arm remains upon any of our shoulders, and with our right we shall continue to fight for our liberties to the last." At length, broken down by their frightful situation, and hopeless of relief, after having exhibited prodigies of valor, and the sublimest acts of patriotism and re-

signation, the miserable survivors of this ghastly scene of desolation assembled round the house of Peter Adrian de Werf, the chief magistrate of the city, a man of great influence amongst the people, and implored him to sanction with his fiat the surrender of the place; but this noble being preferring, like Cato, to perish rather than see his country in the possession of a tyrant, thus addressed his emaciated brethren—"My brave comrades! cut this body in pieces; it is better that I should die *for* you, than *by* the enemy—my wounds disable me from further service. Take courage, let me receive death from your hands, and let my miserable frame furnish a wretched meal for some of you.—Take me, and may Leyden be victorious, and her glory immortal!" Deeply impressed by such firmness and eloquence, his auditors turned their haggard countenances aside, and with the convulsive energy of expiring nature, rushed again to the rampart, and soon afterwards they were thrown into an agony of joy by the arrival of two carrier pigeons, to whose feet were tied stalks of corn and hemp, in which letters were concealed, announcing that relief was at hand. The Dutch confederates, having no other mode of relieving the inhabitants of Leyden, broke down the dykes of the Maese and the Yssel, inundated the Spanish camp, and the beautiful country which surrounds Leyden, and enabled Louis Brissot, admiral of Zealand, to send many flat-bottomed boats, well armed, to the succour of the besieged. This desperate measure compelled the Spanish general to evacuate his camp, and to retire with such of his army as did not perish by the waters, into their own country. This siege, which commenced shortly after Easter, was raised the third of October, on which day a supply of provisions was brought to the famished inhabitants, who greedily devoured the food, amidst tears and convulsive inarticulate exclamations to heaven for their delivery; and many of them dropped down dead upon too rapidly satisfying their ravenous appetites. After this signal deliverance, the Prince of Orange, although suffering under severe illness, ordered himself to be carried in a litter to Leyden, to condole with ~~and~~ express his admiration of its heroic inhabitants: the interview, as well as many scenes which occurred during the siege, must have afforded a fine subject for the pencil. He gave them their option of being exempted for a certain period from taxes, or of having an university founded in their town; when, with noble and disinterested wisdom, they gave the preference to the latter. Never did any seat of learning originate from a nobler cause: it may be said to have been endowed by the blood of the brave. The clergy of Leyden, in a public oration, still celebrate the anniversary of the glorious 3d

of October, in which the story of the siege, and the deliverance of the town are feelingly recapitulated. I was surprised to find that such a subject had not more frequently engaged the pencil of the many divine artists which Holland has produced: the picture which led me to mention the above story is, in my humble opinion, unworthy of the subject; the figures are badly grouped, and express no one emotion which can affect the mind. After quitting the stadt-house, the evening being very fine, I ascended a large mount, which may be considered as a great curiosity in Holland, in the centre of the town, where there is a fine view of it: this mount is surrounded by a high wall, and is said to be the scite of a castle built by Hengist, king of the West Saxons, on his conquest in England, or, what is more likely, by one of the ancient counts of Holland. The town presented a very beautiful appearance from this spot, but it is not elevated enough to enable the visitor to see the surrounding country: the fruit-trees in the gardens which encompassed the wall were loaded with very fine fruit, particularly pears, plums, and apples. This place is much resorted to, on Sundays and holidays, by the citizens and their families, to smoke and enjoy the beauty of the prospect, and the refreshing sweetness of the air.

THE UNIVERSITY.

The next morning I visited the university of Leyden, which stands by the Rapenburg canal: it is the most venerable seminary in Holland: and, by the great number of learned and famous men which it has produced, does honor to the lustre of its origin. There is scarcely a science which has not been improved and extended in this hallowed seat of learning, which has to boast amongst its members the immortal name of the younger Scaliger, who bequeathed to it his valuable Hebrew library; of the two Hensius; father and son; the former of whom was invited by Pope Urban the Eighth to Venice, "to rescue," as he expressed it, "that city from barbarism;" and both of whom shone like stars of the first magnitude in every branch of graceful literature; of Salmasius, the profound and able competitor of our immortal Milton; of Boerhaave, whose consummate knowledge of physic, attracted pupils from the most distant parts of Europe; and of many other illustrious persons, who have shed honor and distinction upon their country and the times in which they flourished. The students board in town at different lodging-houses, wherever their inclinations or resources may dispose them: they wear no regular habit: when the professors appear in public, they wear a large black silk gown, ber-

dered with velvet, on which the word "Leyden" is worked in silver. My next visit was to the botanic garden, rendered immortal by the illustrious Boerhaave, as that of Upsal, in Sweden, has been by Linnæus. Haller says, in speaking of Boerhaave in the Leyden Botanical Garden, "*sæpe vidimus ante Auroram optimum senem ligneis calceis per hortum repentem, ut conpinus et cultum herbarum perspiceret, et flores fructusque spectularetur.*" We have often seen the good old man before the morning dawn, crawling about the garden in his wooden slippers, that he might immediately superintend the culture of plants, and speculate on their flowers and fruits."

BOTANIC GARDEN.

The botanic garden is not very large; in the time of Boerhaave it must have been small indeed; as its history represents it to have been considerably enlarged since that period: in the frontispiece of his *Index Horti L. Bat.* 1710, it is represented to be a petty square piece of ground. It now occupies about four acres, and is in excellent order: the trees and plants are marked according to the Linnæan system; but it is infinitely inferior in value and arrangement to the botanic gardens of Upsala and of the Dublin Society. Amongst the plants, I approached with the reverence due to it, the venerable remains of vegetable antiquity, in the shape of a palm, which stands in a tub in the open air, supported by a thin frame of iron work; it is about fourteen feet high, and was raised from seed by the celebrated Carolus Clusius, who died professor at Leyden in 1609: the professor who attended me, presented me with a bit of its bark, as a little relic. This tree and the pot, in which it grows, are also figured in the frontispiece of Boerhaave's *Index* before mentioned; it there appears to have been about half as high as at present, and is said to be the palm mentioned by Linnæus in his *Praelectiones in Ordines Naturales Plantarum*, p. 27, published by Giseke in 1792, at Hamburgh, which Linnæus suspected to be a *chamaerops*, but which, as the ingenious Dr. Smith observes, his editor rightly refers to the *rhapis flabelli formis*, Ait. Hort. Kew, v. iii. p. 473. It comes from China and Japan: there is a tree of this kind, and about as large, in the botanic garden at Paris, and another at Pisa. In this garden is also the ginkgo of the Chinese, a standard twenty feet high; *Strelitzia reginae*, Ait. Hort. Kew, v. i. p. 285, tab. 2. which has never yet flowered in any garden out of England; the *olea laurifolia*, a new species according to Mr. Van Royen; *Royena lucida* in flower, as large as a moderate hawthorn tree, and thought to be very handsome; and a singular plant from the Cape, supposed

to be an echites, with a large tuberous root raised high above the surface of the ground, two or three weak stems a foot high, and large dark brown flowers. In the university library is Rauwolf's Herbarium, which is very magnificent, and the plants well preserved; also Boeckon's Herbarium of the plants described in his *Fasciculus Plantarum*, published by Morison at Oxford, in 1674; these specimens are very poor: Herman's collection of Ceylon Plants is also here, which are a part of the celebrated Herbarium, the rest of which is at Copenhagen; also a volume of West India plants, belonging to Herman, which are very scarce in Holland, and a fine collection of mathematical instruments; amongst other things, a most pure and brilliant prism of Brazil pebble, and a two-inch cube of Iceland refracting spar, perfectly clear and free from blemish.

In a very long apartment in the gallery there are some busts and statues in tolerable preservation, but of no great value; the best are busts of Nero and Agrippina, Servilius and a Bacchus: they were presented to the university by a citizen of the town. I was shewn into a small room containing some stuffed birds and beasts, which were in very poor condition. The theatre of anatomy is very near the botanic garden; in it is a valuable collection of anatomical and pathological subjects. This hall is well worthy the notice of the traveller, as well for its valuable contents, as for having furnished Europe with some of its best physicians. This library is celebrated throughout Europe, for the many valuable specimens of oriental literature with which it abounds, exclusive of the books before mentioned. Golius, upon his return from the East, and who afterwards filled with great reputation the Arabic professorship of the university, has enriched this valuable depository of learning with many Arabic, Turkish, Chaldean, and Persian manuscripts. I have before mentioned that Joseph Scaliger bequeathed his valuable collection of Hebrew books to it. The precious manuscripts contained here are said to exceed eight thousand. Since the last war commenced, no addition of English publications has been made to this library, which contains the Transactions of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies of London, and the Histories of Gibbon, Robertson, and Hume. To suffer an inimical disposition between two countries to erect a barrier between intellectual communication is giving additional barbarism to the ferocity of war. To the honor of England and France, they have never permitted those melancholy conflicts which have so long, and so fatally inflamed the one against the other, to check the free and liberal interchange of philosophical discovery and literary investigation. Whilst the respective governments have been engaged in recipro-

cal schemes of vengeance, the learned societies of both countries have communed with each other in the language of peace and liberality.

The king of Spain has presented this library with some magnificent folios, descriptive of the antiquities of Herculæum. The books are principally bound in fine white parchment, and are gilded and decorated with considerable taste and splendor. There are in this room several excellent portraits of eminent men who have belonged to the university, or who have been benefactors to it: the head of that elegant and voluptuous poet Johannes Secundus, who died at the age of twenty-five, distinguishable for its dark penetrating eyes, a dust complexion, and black hair and beard, is very fine. There are also very interesting portraits of Janus Douse, who during the siege of Leyden exhibited the most admirable heroism, by which he acquired the applause of the Prince of Orange and the government of the town: this hero shone in letters as well as arms; also of Erasmus at different stages of his life; of Hugo Donellus, painted after death, in which all the appearances of mortality are finely imitated with ghastly precision; also of Daniel Heinsius, and a miniature of Sir Thomas More by Hans Holbein. There are also several medallion likenesses of distinguished Englishmen carved in ivory, such as Milton, Marvel, Ludlow, Wickliffe, Harrington, &c. &c. executed by an English refugee, who took shelter in Holland after the overthrow of the Duke of Monmouth's rebellion. There is a museum of natural history, principally collected by Professor Allemand, containing some fine ores, corals, and pebbles, and also some rare quadrupeds and amphibia: also a young ostrich in the egg; the nautilus with the animal in it, and some papilios. In the anatomical theatre are the valuable preparations of Albinus, amongst them are specimens of the progress of ossification in the fetus. This university has also to boast of the works of Mr. Pestel, professor of Jurisprudence, for his admirable work, entitled *Fundamenta Jurisprudentiæ Naturalis*. The constitutional regulations of this university are conceived in a noble spirit of liberality. No offensive obligations, no religious tests, no repulsive oaths, are imposed, no insidious attempts at proselytism are exercised. Youths of every religious persuasion mingle together in perfect harmony; like brothers they aggregate to study, and not to quarrel about modes of faith. Whatever may be the rank of the student, or from whatever country he may come, he speedily adopts the decent, gentle, and frugal manners and habits of the inhabitants. The long war and revolution in this country have naturally withdrawn a great number of young men of rank

and fortune from this seminary, and prevented others from entering it. The students do not now exceed two hundred. A considerable number of English students, in a period of peace, used to flock to this illustrious academy, which, as well as the beauty, tranquillity, cleanliness, and salubrity of the city in which it stands, and the cheapness and perfect freedom of living, and the charms of the surrounding country, holds out the strongest attractions to the recluse and studious. The examinations for academical honors are more severe than even for those of Trinity College, Dublin.

JOHN OF LEYDEN.

Amongst the curiosities of Leyden, I did not take the trouble of seeing the shopboard of the celebrated John of Leyden, a character distinguishable for its ambition, enterprize, and ferocity: those who have furnished us with an account of this aspiring monster, relate that his name was Bucold; that from being the son of a tailor, and brought up to his father's trade, he resolved upon becoming a king; that accordingly he first tasted of royalty on the board of a strolling company of comedians in the character of a prince, which affording him much gratification, he connected himself with a baker of Amsterdam, a fanatic, who called himself God's vicegerent upon the earth, and declared that he was sent to illuminate the world. This fellow, previous to his becoming the associate of John of Leyden, assumed the name of Thomas Munster, and impregnated a number of Germans with his religious phrenzy, which aimed at the demolition of the doctrine of Luther: this fanatic faction spread with incredible celerity, until the Elector of Saxony, the Landgrave of Hesse, and the Duke of Brunswick, resolved upon drawing the sword against these furious zealots. The prophet Munster was taken prisoner and lost his head: but soon after, as if inspired by this blow, John of Leyden took Munster at the head of a troop of sanguinary bigots, and ordered himself to be proclaimed king. After this ceremony was performed he committed the most horrible outrages: in the name of God, he battered down all the churches, and changed the religion of the country; he recommended polygamy, and kept a seraglio of sixteen wives, one of whom endeavoured to assassinate the Bishop of Waldeck, who fortunately seized the poignard from her hand, and plunged it into her own bosom; and another, John himself put to death for hesitation in complying with his wishes. When he appeared in the streets of Munster, he wore a crown upon his head, carried a sword in one hand, and the New Testament in the other, and was preceded on horseback by a group of fan-

cing boys, whilst the sides were by his mandates, crowded with the prostrate terrified citizens, who were punished with instant death if they stood, or remained covered in his presence. The reign of this petty tyrant was brief: the Bishop of Munster besieged the town, which suffered nearly the same horrors which I have described to have occurred at Leyden, when the Spaniards set down before it; the living fed upon the dead, and a look that intimated a wish to surrender was punished with instant death. The miseries which surrounded him, served only to inflame the fanatical spirit of the monster; at last, however, the town was taken by surprise, and John and the ministers of his bloody ambition were conducted before the victorious prelate, to whom, after being charged with the enormities which he had committed, he is said to have replied, with the craft of a coward, in the following manner: "The possession of my person has cost you much money and much blood, my death will be a loss to you, my life may become a source of profit to you, put me in an iron cage, set a price upon the exhibition of me, and send me through Europe, thus will you in the end be the gainer by me." The bishop saw through his object which was the dastard preservation of his forfeited life, and accordingly ordered him to be put to death with a refinement of cruelty, at the relation of which human nature sickens, abhorred as the victim was. Two executioners tore his flesh slowly asunder with red hot pincers, and after the mitred conqueror and his followers had glutted their eyes with his writhings, and their ears with his screams, a javelin pierced his heart, and his mangled body was thrown into a cage, and exposed to the birds of the air from the steeple of St. Lambert's church. It has been observed by some travellers, that the Dutch are much given to a tremulous motion of the head. I saw no instance of this national trait except, where I expected to find it, among old and paralytic persons. The practice of bowing is not confined to the Dutchman, though adduced against him as a sort of blemish by every Englishman who extends his rambles no farther than Holland: throughout Germany the same courtesy is displayed, and even among the common Russian boors the practice of exchanging bows is quite common.

ST. PETER'S CHURCH.

I was not much gratified with the church of St. Peter, the principal one in this city; it is a large ponderous building, in the worst style of gothic architecture. In this structure the English and Russian soldiers were confined when taken prisoners at Alkmaar. The poor Russians, who expected no quarter, looked

upon the brass chandeliers which are suspended in the body of the church, as the instruments of execution, to each of which they thought of being fastened by the neck. The Russians, in their first campaigns with the French, entertained the same apprehension, and were most agreeably astonished on one occasion, which presented a memorable display of French sagacity, to find that, instead of being shot or guillotined, they were presented with new cloathing of the Russian uniform, and offered their liberty.

STATE OF THE PRESS.

In the streets of Leyden are several very handsome booksellers' shops, particularly Murray's in the Braadstraat, where there are many valuable publications, and particularly a fine collection of the classics, which are sold at very reasonable prices. The press of Leyden, in the time of the Elzevirs, presented some of the most elegant specimens of typography, in the many correct and beautiful editions which they have given of the most renowned authors of antiquity. In beauty, variety, and profusion, the Leyden press rivalled, and in many instances surpassed, that of the Hague and Amsterdam; but since the period of the above bibliopolists, it has gradually decayed. It may be easily imagined, that with the change which has taken place in the political relations of Holland, that the liberty of the press is not what it used to be at Leyden, which was once celebrated for its Gazette, a rival in reputation of that of Brussels: the former was distinguished for its partiality to the Stadtholder, and his well known attachments to the English cabinet; and the latter for supporting the true interests of the country. The editors and proprietors of the Leyden Gazette fled with precipitation, on the irruption of the French into Holland; and the paper which is now issued from Leyden, is of course the organ of the new government, and but little enlivened with political discussion.

WOOLLEN TRADE.

The staple trade of Leyden, the woollen manufactory, has suffered very severely from the establishment of extensive looms in various parts of Germany, from the last and present war with England, and from the superiority of the manufactures of Yorkshire, which are in such high estimation in America and Asia, that Dutch merchants trading to those countries, found it more advantageous to send out English cloths. The coarse cloths of Holland had formerly a brisk market amongst the East and West India Companies: but from the above cause thousands of ma-

manufacturers have been obliged to renounce their looms, and divert their skill and industry to other sources of support; and in all human probability the woollen manufactures of Leyden will never revive.

Near Leyden city, in the village of Rhynsburg, the assembly of a very singular and equally liberal religious association is held, the members of which are called after the name of the place, Rhynsburgians: this meeting was established by three peasants, who were brothers, of the name of John, Ardrian, and Gilbert Van Codel, who to an excellent and profitable acquaintance with farming, which they followed, singularly united a profound knowledge of languages, for which they were so celebrated, that Prince Maurice, and Monsieur de Maurier, the then French ambassador, honored them with several visits, and conversed with them in Latin, Greek, Italian, and French, in each of which they astonished their visitors by their fluency and pronunciation: another brother, William, filled the professorship, of the oriental languages in the university of Leyden. In consequence of the churches being left without their pastors, on the expulsion of the remonstrant clergy in the year 1619, the three first-mentioned brothers determined to supply their places, and undertook to explain the Scriptures: they set an example of genuine christianity which has been rarely displayed; and they taught that every one had a right to worship God according to his own form of faith, taking the Bible for his guide. This association meet every Saturday, for the purpose of digesting the discourses of the ensuing Sunday, when, with the sincerest humility, one of the fraternity distributes the bread and wine. After the morning duties of the Sabbath are passed they reassemble in the evening to return thanks to the Almighty for his favors, and at the same time particularize the instances of his goodness. On Monday morning they part to attend to their different temporal concerns, and at their taking leave, solemnly impress upon each other the sacred obligation, and the blissful result of a perseverance in the pious course which they have hitherto pursued. Such benevolent and exalted principles attract persons of various persuasions to the meeting, who assist in its solemnities, and partake in the pure spirit of its devotion. The religion most followed previous to the revolution, was the Presbyterian and Calvinistical; before the revolution, none but presbyterians were admitted in any office or post under government, except in the army. The republic, in its early stages, displayed its wisdom in making the Calvinistical persuasion predominant, for the country at that period was too poor to erect magnificent temples of worship, and support a train of prelates

in the splendor bestowed upon them in other countries, which were more rich, and had a population adequate to the cultivation of the soil. It was of the highest consequence to Holland to encourage population, and they could not more effectually do it, than by a policy equally generous and enlightened, which offered an asylum to all foreigners persecuted for their religion, and discouraged all monastic institutions.

SINGULAR CUSTOM.

As I was one day roving in this city, I was struck with the appearance of a small board ornamented with a considerable quantity of lace, with an inscription on it, fastened to a house: upon enquiry, I found that the lady of the mansion, where I saw it, had lately lain-in, and was then much indisposed, and that it was the custom of the country to expose this board, which contained an account of the state of the invalid's health, for the satisfaction of her enquiring friends, who were by this excellent plan informed of her situation, without disturbing her by knocking at the door, and by personal enquires: the lace I found was never displayed but in lying-in cases, but without it, this sort of bulletin is frequently used in other cases of indisposition amongst persons of consequence.

It is a painful task not to be able to close my account of this beautiful and celebrated city, without lamenting with the reader the dreadful accident which befel it on the 12th of January last, more terrible and destructive than all the horrors of its siege, the intelligence of which was communicated to me very soon afterwards by a friend in Holland, just as I had fairly written out thus far of my journal. About one o'clock of that day, a vessel laden with forty thousand pounds weight of gunpowder from Amsterdam, destined for Delft, and then lying in the Rapenburg canal, by some means which can never now be known, took fire and blew up with the explosion of a mighty volcano, by which many hundreds of lives were lost, and a great portion of the city destroyed. The king on hearing of the dreadful catastrophe was sensibly affected, repaired to the city, remained all the following night in the streets, and was to be seen wherever his presence could animate the survivors to stop the progress of the flames, to clear the rubbish of fallen buildings, and drag from under the ruins those who had been covered by them: the king offered the palace in the wood to persons of respectability, whose habitations had been overthrown by the shock, until they could secure homes to repair to; empowered the magistrates of this devoted city to make a general collection throughout the whole kingdom, and ordered 100,000 guilders

to be paid out of the treasury for the relief of the surviving sufferers.

HAARLEM.

I quitted Leyden with great reluctance, and entered on board the treckschuyt for Haarlem, which sets off every two hours for that town, distant from Leyden fifteen miles. The canal all the way is broad and clear, and frequently adorned with the yellow-fringed water-lily. Nothing could be more beautiful than our passage. As we approached Haarlem, the villas and gardens which nearly all the way adorn the banks of the canal, increased in number, beauty, and magnitude: many of them belong to the most opulent merchants of Amsterdam. Haarlem is not so beautiful as Leyden, but abounds with spacious streets, canals and avenues, and handsome houses: it is about four miles from the sea, and fifteen from Amsterdam: on one side of the canal is the Haarlem meer, or lake, the spring water of which is so celebrated all over Europe for producing the most brilliant whiteness upon the linens bleached here, and the superior property of which cannot be reached by any chymical process. Haarlem was once fortified, but its ramparts now form an agreeable promenade. The bleacheries of this city are too well known to be further mentioned; in all his wandering the traveller will never enjoy the luxury of snow-white linen in such perfection as at Haarlem: before the war, Scotch and Irish linens used to be sent here to be bleached. There was a considerable manufacture of silks and camblets, but it has experienced a great decline, and the principal trade is bleaching threads and cambric; the inhabitants are calculated at thirty-two thousand. The cathedral, which is said to be the largest in the kingdom, though I am inclined to think that of Utrecht greater, was built in 1472, and the steeple, which is very handsome, was added in 1515. To inspect the internal part of the building, I was obliged to apply to one of the principal clergymen belonging to it, who resides in an adjoining house, and attended by a lady-like looking woman, perhaps his wife, or house-keeper, I was admitted into this venerable pile, where the first object that struck me was the celebrated organ supported upon pillars of porphyry: this instrument is said to be the finest and largest in the world; it occupies the whole west end of the nave. For a ducat paid to the organist, and two florins to the bellows blower, the former will gratify the traveller by playing for an hour; unfortunately for me he was absent in the country, and I did not hear the celebrated vox humana, or pipe, which most admirably imitates the human voice. Of the magnitude of this enormous musical

pile, the reader may form some conception when he is informed that it contains eight thousand pipes, some of which are thirty-eight feet in length, and sixteen inches in diameter, and has sixty-four stops, four separations, two shakes, two couplings, and twelve bellows; like an elephant, that with his proboscis can either pluck a violet or raise a tree by its roots, the notes of this wonderful instrument can swell from the softest to the sublimest sounds, from the warbling of a distant bird to the awful tone of thunder, until the massy building trembles in all its aisles. On every Tuesday and Thursday, a voluntary is played upon this organ from twelve till one o'clock, when the doors of the cathedral are thrown open. Many years since the immortal Handel played upon this organ, when the organist, in amazement, pronounced him to be an angel, or the devil. Between two of the columns which support the organ, there is a noble emblematical alto-relievo, with three figures as large as life, by Xavery, representing Gratitude, assisted by Poetry and Music, making an offering to Piety, and a Latin inscription purporting that the organ was erected in 1738, at the town's expense, the same having been built by Christian Muller of this city. This is the organ which the good people of Rotterdam are endeavouring to rival: the cathedral, like the other churches, is crowded with square wooden monuments, painted with the arms of the deceased on a black ground, with the date of their death in gold letters, but no names: in the wall at the east end of the church, a cannon ball is exhibited, which was fired into it by the Spaniards in the 16th century, during divine service.

The walks round this city are very beautiful, and at a short distance from it there is a noble wood, in which is a fine walk of stately elms, nearly three miles long, abounding with beautiful scenery: this wood is a rival of that which I have described at the Hague. In this delightful place stands the mansion of Mr. Henry Hoopes whose family has been long known for its loyalty and immense wealth: it is said to have cost fifty thousand pounds. Upon the revolution taking place, this gentleman was obliged to seek refuge in England, to the capital of which he had previously transported in safety his magnificent collection of paintings.

The villa, which is built of brick stuccoed, is modern and magnificent, and before the revolution was frequently resorted to by the Prince of Orange and his family, who were much attached to its opulent and liberal owner, which he eminently merited, by having rendered them many important services, particularly in 1788, when it was unsafe for him to appear on the exchange of Amsterdam without military protection. As the

pictures were removed, there was nothing in the internal part of the mansion worthy of notice.

Haarlem and its environs are more celebrated than any other spot, for the beautiful flowers which it produces, the soil being peculiarly propitious to their production.

Not far from the church, the spot where stood the house of Lawrence Coster, who lived in the middle of the fifteenth century, the celebrated inventor of the art of printing, is shewn; formerly there was a statue over the gate where he lived, with this inscription:

MEMORIE SACRUM
TYPOGRAPHIA,
ARS ARTIUM OPTIMA
CONSERVATRIX,
HIC PRIMUM INVENTA
CIRCA ANNUM M CCCC XL.

The first book he printed is kept in the town-house, in a silver case wrapt up in silk, and is always shewn with great caution, as a most precious relic of antiquity. The glory of this transcendent discovery, which spread light and civilization over the world, and formed a new epoch in its history, was for a long time disputed between Haarlem, Mayence, and Strasburg; the latter, after a laborious investigation, has renounced her pretensions, and the general opinion seems to bestow the palm upon the first city. The manner in which Coster imbibed the first impressions of this divine discovery, is said to have been from his cutting the letters of his name on the bark of a tree, and afterwards pressing a piece of paper upon the characters, until they became legible upon it, which induced him to continue the experiment, by engraving other letters upon wood. Those early principles were soon diffused through France, with considerable improvements, by the enterprising ability of the Etiennes; by the learned Manutius, a celebrated Venetian painter, and inventor of Italian characters through Italy; and through the Netherlands by Christopher Plantin, whose Printing-office at Antwerp was one of the principal ornaments of the town, and who was distinguished for his skill, erudition, and prodigious wealth, created solely by a successful prosecution of his important business.

Mayence contests the honor of the invention, but it is generally believed that a servant of Coster, of the name of Faustus, stole the types of his master on a Christmas-eve, whilst he was attending his devotions at church, and fled with his booty to Mayence. The portrait of Coster is to be seen in most of the booksellers' shops at Haarlem, and in other principal towns.

A memorable, but not an unusual instance of affection, and of

female presence of mind, occurred in this city many years since, at a spot which is still shewn with no little degree of national pride, whereon an antient castle stood, the lord of which was severely pressed by the burghers of the town, who laid siege to it, on account of his tyrannical conduct towards them: driven to the last extremity, and when his life was on the point of paying the forfeit of his crimes, his lady appeared on the ramparts, and offered to surrender, provided she might be permitted to bring out as much of *her most valuable goods as she could carry on her back*; which being complied with, she brought her husband out upon her shoulders, preserved him from the fury of the troops, and gave up to them possession of the castle.

History informs us, that Haarlem presented a glorious example of resistance to the Spanish yoke, so heroically imitated two years after at Leyden, which experienced a better fortune than befel the wretched inhabitants of the former city. Whilst provinces were bravely opposing their invaders, a long and memorable siege in 1573, which was carried on against Haarlem by Frederic of Toledo, the son of the sanguinary Duke of Alva, during which the female inhabitants, like those of Leyden, assisted the garrison in their duties, underwent every privation, faced every horror, and rushed to certain destruction in defence of the town, with an alacrity and fortitude which have rendered them immortal in the annals of their country. Those heroines, when the garrison refused with indignation the conditions which were offered them by the Spanish general, fought with unshaken courage by the side of the men, in their desperate sorties against the besieging army, and in their fury put every prisoner to death, whom they took in these attacks. This unjustifiable conduct, and the derision which from the ramparts they expressed of the Roman Catholic worship, induced the Spaniards to retort with terrible vengeance. In consequence of a correspondence which the besieged carried on with the Prince of Orange by means of carrier pigeons, being discovered by the Spaniards, they shot every pigeon which came within the reach of their musketry, which rendered the situation of the garrison hopeless, and they at length surrendered, on condition that the lives of the soldiers and inhabitants should be spared, to which Frederic Toledo consented, entered the town at the head of his victorious troops, and in cold blood butchered two thousand of those who had submitted to his arms, and trusted to his honor.

When it is considered, that at this period, the Spanish monarchy was predominant in Europe, its armies were mighty, its generals experienced, and its treasury overflowing, the triumphant prowess which the Dutch displayed in finally driving

their powerful invaders back to their own frontiers, will render the Dutch name illustrious as long as the record of history endures. The Dutch ladies have rivalled in fame the most renowned heroines of Greece and Rome. The Hollanders treasure up these gallant exploits in their memories, they form the favorite subjects of their songs, and the old and the young recite with enthusiasm the great deeds of their ancestors.

The Haarlem lake which I mentioned, presented a very bleak and dismal sheet of water from the canal; it is about fourteen miles long, and about the same number broad; is said not to be above six feet deep, and lies between Leyden, Amsterdam, and Haarlem: its waters are slimy, and abound with eels, some of which are of a prodigious size. This lake can have no charm but for a bleacher. The fuel used here is Newcastle coals and turf.

ANECDOTE OF BERGHEM.

The justly celebrated Nicholas Berghem, was born here in 1624, and studied under his father, an inconsiderable painter, whose name was Van Haarlem, which Berghem exchanged in the following whimsical manner: whilst he was a pupil of John Van Goyen, who was very fond of him, his father was one day pursuing him in the street, to give him correction for some peccadillo, when his master seeing his father gaining upon him rapidly, cried out to some of his other scholars, Berg-hem! which signifies hide him; from which circumstance he obtained, and kept that name. The distinguishing characteristics of Berghem's pictures are breadth, and just distribution of the lights, the grandeur of his masses of light, and shadow, the natural attitudes of his figures, expressive of their several characters, the just gradation of his distances, the brilliancy, harmony, and transparency of his colouring, the correctness and true perspective of his design, and the elegance of his composition, and his subjects however various, are all equally admirable. This great man had the calamity and the infatuation, to make an offer of his hand and heart to the daughter of one of the masters under whom he studied, when he left Van Goyen, of the name of Willis, who proved to be one of the most clamorous and sordid termagants that Holland, or perhaps any other country ever produced; by the terror of her tongue, and the fury of her manner, she forced him to slave at his easel without intermission, from the break to the departure of day, and frequently all night long, without permitting him to have the disposal of a single guilder without her consent: amidst this domestic broil, poor Berghem never lost his temper, he sang whilst she scolded, as

if he thought, in this increasing state of internal broil, he produced some of the finest effusions of his pencil. He was singularly curious in purchasing the finest prints and designs of the Italian masters, to improve his own taste, which after his death sold for a large sum of money: by his indefatigable industry, he produced an amazing number of pictures, which now are rarely to be purchased, and then only for prodigious prices.

The last that I shall mention is Jacob Ruysdaal, who was born here in 1636, and was the bosom friend of Berghem, who imparted to him much of the spirit which adorns his own works. No painter ever possessed a greater share of public admiration than Ruysdaal, a reputation which has remained unimpaired to this hour. His works are distinguishable by a natural and most delightful tone of colour, by a free, light, firm, and spirited pencil, and by a happy choice of situation. He was fond of introducing water into his paintings, and he was equally fortunate in representing the tumultuous foam of the torrent, as the pellucid transparency of the canal. Ruysdaal was cut off at the age of forty-five. Since the removal of Mr. Hope's collection, there is no private cabinet of pictures in or near Haarlem worthy the attention of the traveller. There is, however, a cabinet of natural history, said to be the finest in Holland, which was formed by Doctor Van Marum, whose electrical experiments have ascertained that the death of animals is coincident with the cessation of irritability: this museum is well arranged according to the Linnæan system. I heard of nothing more to detain the traveller at Haarlem. The canal from Haarlem to Amsterdam is clear and spacious, and nearly strait for the first four miles, at the lessening end of which the former city has a very agreeable appearance; but I was surprised to find so very few country-houses, and scarcely an object that denoted our approach to that renowned capital of the kingdom, and, as it has been aptly called, "the great warehouse of the world."

ENORMOUS SLUICES.

About half-way we changed boats, and crossed the enormous sluices which protect the country from inundation in this part: we passed over the waters of the Haarlem Meer and of the river Y, so called from its form resembling that letter, being a branch of the Zuyder Zee. The only object worthy of notice thus far was a large stone building, called the Castle Zaanwanenburg, the residence of the directors of the dykes and water-works of Rhymland. The cost of constructing and repairing the sluices is paid out of the general taxes. The country here is four or five feet below the level of the river Y, which, however,

is rendered perfectly innocuous by the massy and prodigious dams before mentioned, the construction and preservation of which place the indefatigable enterprize and industry of the Hollander in an eminent point of view.

I reached Amsterdam just after the gates had been closed, but my commissaire and I were admitted upon paying a few stivers. As soon as we had entered, every object denoted a vast, populous, and opulent city: every street, and I passed through a great number before I reached my hotel, was tolerably well lighted, but in this respect infinitely inferior to London. At length, after traversing the city about two miles and a half, I reached the principal hotel, called Amsterdam Wapen, or the Arms of Amsterdam, which in point of magnitude and accommodation, may vie with the first hotels in our metropolis. Here, after an excellent supper of fish, which the Dutch dress to admiration, and some porter, which was an excellent imitation of that description of beverage for which London is so justly renowned, I found a sofa bed prepared for me, with curtains pendent from the centre, in the French taste, which much prevails in the internal arrangement of the houses of this great city.

In the morning I was awakened by the chimes of some of the churches, which in softness and sweetness resembled the distant sounds of a harp. Although it was seven o'clock, upon looking from the window, I heard the hum and beheld the bustle of business which in other countries characterise mid-day. Under the agreeable influence of a brilliant cloudless sky, I descended into the street, and mingled with the active, ant-like multitude, every member of which presented a physiognomy full of thought and calculation.

SINGULAR LAW RESPECTING CARRIAGES.

The first circumstance that afforded novelty was that amidst all the bustle I seldom met with any carriages on wheels to augment the noise of the scene. Upon enquiry I found, that, by the police laws of Amsterdam, wheel-carriages are limited to a certain number, which is very inconsiderable compared with the size of the city, from an apprehension that an uncontrouled use of them might hazard the foundation of the houses, most of which are built upon piles; for nearly the whole of the ground on which this vast city stands was formerly a morass. A carriage, called by the Dutch a sley, and by the French a traîneau, or, on account of its solemnity, un pot de chambre, is used in their room; it is the body of a coach fastened by ropes on a sledge and drawn by one horse; the driver walks by the

side of it, which he holds with one hand to prevent its falling over, and with the other the reins: nothing can be more melancholy than this machine, which holds four persons, moves at the rate of about three miles an hour, and seems more like the equipage of an hospital, than a vehicle in which the observer would expect to find a merry face; yet in this manner do the Dutch frequently pay visits and take the air. It was in allusion to the forest foundation of this wonderful place, that Erasmus sportively observed, when he first visited it, that he had reached a city, the inhabitants of which, like crows, lived upon the tops of trees; and another wit compared Amsterdam to Venice, on account of both having wooden legs.

AMSTERDAM.

Amsterdam is situated on the rivers Y and Amstel, from the latter of which it derives its name; it is about nine miles and a half in circumference, of a semicircular form, surrounded with a fosse, about eighty feet wide, and a rampart faced with brick, which is in several places dismantled, and twenty-six bastions: it has also eight noble gates of stone, and several draw-bridges: the population is estimated at three hundred thousand. In 1204, with the exception of a small castle, not a building was to be seen upon the site of this great city, which, from being at first a petty village of fishermen, dilated in the lapse of years, and by the enterprize and industry of the inhabitants, into a magnificent capital, which, at length, upon the shutting up of the navigation of the Scheld, added the commerce of Antwerp to its own, and became the great emporium of the world. Neither here, nor in any of the cities or towns in Holland, through which I passed, is a stranger annoyed by barriers, productions of passports, or any of those disagreeable ceremonies which distinguish the police of many other countries. In Holland a foreigner finds his loco-motive disposition as little restricted, or encumbered by municipal regulations, as in England. Canals intersect nearly the whole of this city, adorned with avenues of stately elms. Many of the houses are very splendid, particularly those in Kiezer's gragt, or Emperor's street, and Heeren gragt, or Lords' street, where there are many mansions, which, were they not so much concealed by the fan of the trees from before them, would have a very princely appearance. Many of the shops are also very handsome, particularly those belonging to jewellers and print-sellers; in the windows of the latter prints of the illustrious Nelson, and of our marine victories, were exposed to view. The druggists

here, and in other parts of Holland, use as a sign a huge carved head, with the mouth wide open, placed before the shop windows; sometimes it resembles a Mercury's head, at others it is surmounted by a fool's cap. This clumsy and singular sign is called *de gaaper*, the gaper; what analogy it bears to physic I could not learn; it is very likely to have originated in whim and caprice. Some of the shop boards, called *uithang borden* have ridiculous verses inscribed upon them.

THE STADTHOUSE, ITS HALLS, PRISONS, &c.

The first place my curiosity led me to was the Stadthouse, which is unquestionably a wonderful edifice, considering that Holland furnishes no stone, and that the foundation of the building was boggy: the latter circumstance rendered it necessary to have an artificial foundation of extraordinary construction and magnitude, and accordingly it rests upon thirteen thousand six hundred and ninety-five massy trees, or piles, the first of which was driven on the 20th of January, 1648, and the last on the 6th of October following, when the first stone with a suitable inscription, was laid: and seven years afterwards the different colleges of magistrates took formal possession of the apartments allotted to their respective offices, but at this time the roof and dome were not completed: the expence of this mighty edifice amounted to two millions sterling. The principal architect was John Van Kampen, who acted under the controul of four burgomasters. The area in which it stands is spacious, and was till lately called *Revolutie plein*; it is disfigured by the proximity of the *waag*, or weigh-house, a very old shabby building. The form of the Stadt-house is square, its front is two hundred and eighty-two feet, its depth two hundred and fifty-five, and its height one hundred and sixteen. It has seven small porticoes, representative of the seven provinces; the want of a grand entrance is a great architectural defect, which immediately excites the surprise of the traveller; but it was so constructed from the wary precautionary foresight of the magistrates who had the superintendence of the building, for the purpose of preventing free access to a mob, in case of tumult.

One of the first apartments which attracts the attention is the tribunal, on the basement floor; in this room, prisoners who have been found guilty of capital offences are conducted to receive the awful sentence of the law; the entrance is through a massy folding door, decorated with brass emblems, indicative of the purpose to which the chamber is applied, such as Jove's

beams of lightening, and flaming swords—under which are two lines from Virgil,

“Discite Justitiam moniti
“Et non temnere Divos.”

Above, between the rails, are the old and new city arms, and at the bottom are death's-heads and bones. The whole of the interior is composed of white marble; on the south and north are two rows of fluted pilasters, one above another; on the west side are statues representing four nude women, supporting the cornices which crown the pilasters: two of these figures conceal their faces with their hands, as indicative of shame; in the compartments between are basso-relievos, representing the judgment of Solomon; Zaleucus, the Locrian king, tearing out one of his eyes, to save one of his son's who had been condemned to lose both for adultery, by a law made expressly against that crime by his father; and Junius Brutus putting his sons to death. Above these are figures representing Romulus and Remus drawing milk from the she wolf, and also of Jupiter: the head of Medusa upon the shield of Pallas is very finely executed. In the north, under a seat of white marble, is a place for the secretary, who pronounces the fatal sentence, when the magistrates appear in their robes at a gallery on the west side. On the fore part of the Judgment seat is a fine marble statue of *Silence*, which Dutch gallantry represents under the form of a *woman*, seated on the ground, with her finger on her mouth, and two children weeping over a death's-head. On each side of this seat are serpents writhing round a tree, each with an apple in his mouth; the same ornaments also decorate the sides of the door: above the seat is a statue, raised on a black marble pedestal, representing the city of Amsterdam as a virgin, guarded by a lion on each side; above the head of the figure is an imperial crown, protected by a spread eagle; on each side of the pedestal are Neptune and Glaucus, representative of the rivers Y and Amstel, and a little higher are the arms of the four burgomasters, in whose magistracy the first stone of this building was laid, gracefully connected by festoons. On the pedestal is an inscription in letters of gold, commemorative of the laying of the first stone of the building.

The principal bas-reliefs and ornaments in this room, and other parts of this edifice, were made by Artus Quellinus, a celebrated statuary of Antwerp. When the awful doom of the law is to be pronounced; the criminal is brought into this hall guarded, and nothing is omitted in point of solemnity to impress

the mind of the delinquent and the spectators the awful consequences of violating the laws of the country.

A thorough knowledge of human nature dictated the policy of placing this hall on the ground-floor, the brazen door of which opens into a thoroughfare passage through the Stadt-house. I never passed by this door without seeing numbers of the lower orders, of people gazing through the rails of it upon the emblematical objects within, and apparently in melancholy meditation, reflecting upon the purposes to which this hall is applied, and upon the ignominious results of deviating from the paths of virtue. On one side of this chamber is a grand double staircase, which leads to the Burghers', or Marble Hall: it is 120 feet long, about 57 broad, and 80 high, and is entirely composed of white marble, as are the galleries, which are 21 feet wide on each side, into which the entrances to the different courts of justice, the chamber of domains, of insurance, of orphans, the council room, the offices of the bank, &c. open. This magnificent room and the surrounding galleries were seen to great advantage, on account of their having been cleaned previous to the coronation of the king, which was intended to have taken place in it about a month after I visited it. A great number of workmen had been employed in scraping, washing, and polishing their marble sides for several months, and their appearance was equally grand and beautiful: the bronze gates and railing which form the grand entrance of the hall are massy, yet exquisitely executed: over this entrance is a colonnade of Corinthian pillars of red and white marble. At one end is a colossal figure of Atlas supporting on his shoulders the globe, attended by Vigilance and Wisdom. The roof is painted with allegorical figures. Upon the floor, the celestial and terrestrial globes are delineated in brass and various coloured marbles, arranged in three large circles, 22 feet diameter; the two external ones representing the hemispheres of the earth, and the center the planisphere of the heavens.

The *Burgomasters' Cabinet*, as it is still called, is a handsome apartment, the entrance of which is adorned with some beautiful carving, emblematical of the use of the apartment. The chimney-piece in this room, representing the triumphs of Fabius Maximus, is worthy of notice. To the left of the Burgomasters' chamber is a gallery, ten feet deep and thirty broad, where after the ringing of a bell to give notice, all proclamations, law sentences, and municipal regulations, are promulgated.

The chamber of the treasury ordinary contains a picture of Mary de Medicis as large as life; a chart of Amsterdam as it appeared when first walled round in 1482; and on the bookcases

are some curious effigies of the ancient Earls and Countesses of Holland.

The Burgomasters' apartment is 45 feet broad and 30 deep, and is in my opinion the handsomest room in the Stadt-house. The marble chimney-pieces are enriched with many exquisitely sculptured basso-relievos by De Wit; but its chief ornament is two paintings; one by Ferdinand Bol, representing Curius at his rural repast; and the other, Fabricius in the camp of Pyrrhus, by Flink. From this room there is passage to the Execution Chamber, or *the Chamber of the last Prayers*, where criminals condemned to death take leave of their priest, and pass through a window, the lower part of which is of wood, to enable its being opened level with the floor to the scaffold, which is constructed on the outside, opposite to the weigh-house, and which is raised as high as this part of the building. There is nothing in this room worthy of notice, except its melancholy appropriation. From this room we were conducted to the council chamber, which is 45 wide and 30 deep, where there is a very large painting by Jacob de Wilt, representing Moses and the seventy elders of Israel. Above the chimney-piece to the north is a very fine picture by Flink, the subject Solomon imploring heaven for wisdom. Above this is a scriptural subject, a noble production, from the pencil of Bronkhorst. Some of the basso-relievos which adorn the various parts of this room, sculptured by De Wit, are exquisitely fine, a pen and ink-horn. It would puzzle a magician to interpret many of the allegorical devices, but they are all beautifully executed.

In the chamber for marriages, and injuries, there is nothing to arrest the attention of a visitor one minute. In Holland, marriage being a civil contract, when agreed upon in Amsterdam, it is always first performed before the magistrates in this room, without whose fiat the ceremony would be invalid; the clergyman, according to the religion of the parties, performs his functions afterwards. This room is also called, amongst the lower orders of people, the *Scolding Chamber*, on account of the irritability frequently displayed here by parties of that class, when they come to obtain redress for small offences. We were also led through the chamber for sea affairs, the mercers' hall, the painters' chamber, and the room but little suited to the treasures which it contains, is a very long picture by Vandyke, in which there is a grey head of an old man, of matchless excellence, which the observer cannot but retire from with regret. The burgomasters of Amsterdam were offered seven thousand florins for this head alone, to be cut out from the rest of the picture. There is also a large picture by Vanderhelst, representing a feast given by the burgo-

masters of Amsterdam to the ambassadors of Spain, on account of the peace of Munster, which closed a war that had lain waste the Netherlands for eighty years; and many other large and fine paintings by Rubens, Jordans, and Otho Venius. It is a matter of surprise, that after Holland submitted to the French arms, these exquisite productions should be permitted to remain upon the walls which they have so long adorned.

In the great, or council of war chamber, there are some good paintings representing the ancient train-bands, and officers in their proper costume; many of which are portraits. In the secretary's office, a handsome room, amongst other decorations, is a basso-relievo of *Silence*, which the Dutch are very fond of representing under the form of a woman. Upon my observing to a Dutchman, that in England such a compliment had never been paid to my own lovely countrywomen, he replied "Yes, but do you not notice that the statuary has placed the finger of the lady upon her mouth, as if he thought that no one of the sex, not even a Dutch female, could preserve silence without keeping her lips forcible together with her finger." The convenience of having nearly all the principal public offices, and courts of justice under one roof, is very great; the size of the kingdom, and the simplicity of its public transactions, render such a concentration more easy of accomplishment in Holland than in England.

Before we ascended to the dome, we were introduced into the great magazine of arms, which extends the whole length of the front and part of the sides of this vast pile: it contains a curious and valuable collection of antient and modern Dutch arms. Some colours which the French took from the Spaniards have been lately added, as a present from the king to this city, a donation which could not fail affording great gratification to a people, who to this hour hold the Spanish nation in abhorrence. The prospect from the tower, or dome, is very fine and extensive, commanding the whole of the city and its environs, crowded with windmills, the river Y filled with ships, the Zuyder Zee, the Amstel, the Haarlem lake, and the quarter containing the gardens, the admiralty, and ships of war on the stocks. From this elevated spot we were nearer the bronze figures which adorn the front, representing Justice, Wealth, and Strength, and which are of an enormous size: on the other side is a colossal bronze statue of Atlas supporting the world, executed in a masterly manner. The tower contains a vast number of bells, the largest of which weighs between six and seven thousand pounds; the carillons in this dome are remarkably sweet, they play every quarter of an hour an agreeable air, which is executed to admiration. An

excellent carillonneur is engaged to entertain the citizens of Amsterdam three times a week; the perfection to which he has brought his performance can only be appreciated by those who have heard it. The brass barrel by which he plays is seven feet and a half in diameter, and weighs four thousand four hundred and seventy four pounds. The clocks strike the full hour at the half hour, and upon the expiration of the full hour, repeat it upon a bell of a deeper tone.

By considerable interest, and with much difficulty, I was admitted to see the prison which occupies one of the courts of the Stadt-house, on two sides of which, below ground, are the dungeons, to which the gaoler conducted us by a lamp: as a place of confinement nothing can be more secure, and as a place of punishment more horrible. After descending a dreary flight of steps, and passing through a long narrow passage, midway vast double doors, thickly plated with iron, were opened, through which we entered, and at the end were stopped by two massy doors which, upon being unbolted, led to a row of subterranean dungeons. In the first, by the faint light of a rush candle, I discerned the emaciated figure of a man who had been convicted of robbery, attentively reading: he just turned from his book to look at us a moment, and then returned to it: he was condemned to inhabit this cell alone for life!—In the next were two young men who, in the forms of Dutchmen, seemed to carry the elastic souls of Frenchmen, that bend to and carol under every human misery; for in this gloomy abode, in which one would suppose resignation would turn to despair, they were whistling and waltzing in the dark; whilst in the third were several women and a young girl, the latter about fifteen, confined for having displayed an early, and rather too violent a fondness for the laws of nature. These miserable beings were also in darkness, except when they closely approached the vast double bars which crossed the windows of their cells, when they were enabled to behold a little light, which faintly reached them through some low oblong apertures on the opposite side of the passage, thickly guarded by similar massy bars, just raised above the level of the court, into which these poor wretches are never permitted to walk; for, deplorable to relate, from the first minute of their commitment till their fate is finally fixed, they are never suffered to quit their gloomy abodes but to appear before their judges in the adjoining hall, where they undergo private examinations, and at length a close trial. The crimes with which these latter unhappy prisoners stood charged were not of a very malignant nature, yet were they, even before the guilt of some of them was established, cut off from light and air, and immured in regions fit only to be a receptacle for the dead. I need scarcely inform

the reader that their appearance when they pressed towards the grating, when alone they were distinguishable, was a in high degree squalid and sickly.

None of these miserable wretches were loaded with irons; they would, indeed, have been a very unnecessary augmentation of cruelty, for nothing but the miraculous interference of an angel could have burst open their prison-doors, which were doubly cased with iron, and fastened with enormous bolts and locks, whilst the walls of the cells were cased with ponderous masonry, through which, if a prisoner had the means to penetrate, he would afterwards have to encounter all the earth upon which the Stadt-house stood. The gaoler shewed us some irons of a particular construction, and a board which fastened round the neck and one hand, for refractory criminals, but he assured me they had not been used for many years.

The principal secretary of the magistracy shewed me the hall of justice, which was formerly the torture chamber. Here the miserable sufferer, who refused to confess his guilt, at the pleasure of his barbarous judge, underwent a variety of torments; among others it was usual to fasten his hands behind his neck, with a cord which passed through pulleys fastened to a vaulted ceiling, by means of which he was jerked up and down with leaden weights of fifty pounds each lashed to his feet, until anguish overpowered his senses and a confession of guilt was heard to quiver on his lips. Some of the iron-work by which this infamous process was effected was still adhering to the walls. This ferocious and stupid practice was only abolished in 1798. This room is entirely of stone low and vaulted; the windows are small, and guarded by vast double bars of iron, and the whole is very little better than a large dungeon. A bar for the prisoner to appear at, a seat for the witness, for only one is most judiciously admitted at a time; a table and raised seats for the judges, and lower ones for the officers attached to the tribunal, form all the arrangements of this gloomy seat of justice. The prisoner is permitted to have a counsellor to plead his cause, and no strangers are admitted on any account. Three days are suffered to elapse between the sentence and its execution in capital cases; during which the prisoner is allowed whatever refreshment he may choose; an indulgence which, from the state of the appetite at such a period, seldom runs the state into much expence. Public punishments are inflicted four times in the course of the year. On these occasions a vast scaffold is erected, as I have mentioned, in the great area between the stadt-house and the weighing or custom-house, upon a level with the first floor of the former building, through which the criminals

enter to the spot assigned for them to receive their punishment; those who are to be whipped receive that punishment with considerable severity, and are not permitted to retire till those who are to die have suffered death, which is inflicted by decapitation with the sword or hanging, though the latter is more frequent. On these melancholy occasions, the chief magistrates attend in their robes, and nothing is omitted to augment the solemnity of the scene.

In consequence of its being expected that though a culprit is to suffer death, he is to receive the fatal stroke in the precise mode prescribed by the law, a magistrate who presided at the execution of a murderer a few years since, had nearly subjected himself to a severe punishment. The guilt of the criminal was aggravated by cruelty, and he was condemned to lose his life by decapitation, in which case the law directs that it shall be severed by one stroke of the sword: previous to his quitting the chamber of the last prayers, he laid a wager with a friend who attended him, that he had suggested an expedient by which the executioner should not be able to perform his office; and accordingly, the moment he knelt to receive the fatal stroke, he rolled his head in every direction so violently, and so rapidly, that the executioner could not strike him with any probability of decollating him at one blow; and after many fruitless aims, was compelled to renounce the attempt. The officers who were entrusted to see to the execution of the sentence were in the greatest dilemma; in vain did they try by argument to persuade the fellow to remain still, and quietly have his head taken off; he was remanded back to prison, and after an hour's deliberation, the presiding magistrate, upon his own responsibility, ordered the gallows to be brought out, upon which he caused him to be executed. The judges and lawyers took alarm, and half the city felt as if the murderer had been murdered; and nothing but the high character, rank, and influence of the magistrate, by whose resolute orders the miscreant at length paid the forfeit of his life, preserved him from the most unpleasant consequences for enforcing the spirit of the law after a different fashion from that prescribed. Capital punishments are very rare: four malefactors were executed in 1799, and nine since. The Dutch entertain a frightful opinion of the criminal laws of England, which they consider very sanguinary, from the great number of delinquents who are annually put to death there.

The strong apartments which formerly contained the vast treasures of the bank, and the offices attached to that wealthy concern, are on the ground-floor, where several clerks are employed to transact the business of that celebrated establishment. From the wise measures adopted by the king, who made, as I

have before observed, the recognition of the national debt one of the first measures of his government, the national creditor has no apprehensions. Before the war, this institution, which was a bank of deposit, was supposed to contain the greatest quantity of bullion in the world, and popular credulity dwelt with ostentatious fondness upon the extent of its accumulated treasures, which they resembled to a Peruvian mine; its pile of precious metals was valued at the enormous sum of forty millions. The regulations which governed deposits made in this bank were as follow: the person depositing cash or bullion received a credit in the books for the amount, and a receipt for the same, which expired at the end of six months, was given, renewable upon paying a small per centage for warehouse rent; if such receipt expired before the money or bullion was redeemed, neither the one nor the other could be afterwards removed, but for it an equivalent in bank credit was given, which receipt could afterwards be converted into cash in the market. Another regulation was, that not a florin of the cash or bullion invested should ever be removed by way of loan. This compact between the bank and the creditor was always considered inviolable. A rumour was circulated, with equal celerity and anxiety, soon after the arrival of the French in Holland, highly injurious to the responsibility of the institution, and a deputation of merchants waited respectfully on the directors of the bank, to solicit satisfaction as to its solvency; to which an answer, couched in general terms, but favorable to its responsibility, was given. Owing to the unshaken stability which it had displayed, from 1672, when Louis the Fourteenth, at the head of a victorious army, was expected every hour to have made his triumphal entry into Amsterdam, to 1795, when the French fixed the destiny of the country, this answer was received with perfect confidence and security in the bank, and any doubt upon the subject was considered to be the result of party malignity. Upon the French taking possession of Amsterdam, a complete investigation of the business followed.

PUBLIC BUILDINGS.

Amsterdam has no noble squares, which add so much to the splendour of London, nor is there any bridge worthy of being noticed, except that which crosses the river Amstel, which is built of brick, has thirteen arches, and is tolerably handsome: on the river looking towards this bridge, there is a fine view of the city, which I preferred sketching, to a more expanded one on the coast, immediately opposite to the city, in the north of Holland. The pulv association, throughout Holland, which resema-

bles a monastic one, is that of the Berguines, who reside in a large house appropriated to their order, which is surrounded with a wall and ditch, has a church within, and resembles a little town; this sisterhood is perfectly secular, the members of which wear no particular dress, mingle with the inhabitants of the city, quit the convent, and marry when they please. but they are obliged, as long as they belong to the order, to attend prayers at stated periods, and to be within the convent at a certain hour every evening. To be admitted of this order, they must be either unmarried or widows without children, and the only certificate required is that of good behaviour, and that they have a competence to live upon. The restraints are so very few, that a Beguine may rank next to a happy wife: they have each an apartment and a little flower-garden, and take no vows of celibacy or of any other sort; in short, the whole of the establishment may be considered as a social retirement of amiable women, for the purpose of enjoying life in an agreeable and blameless manner.

DUTCH LADIES.

The ladies of Holland, if I may judge from those with whom I had the honour and happiness of associating in Amsterdam, are very amiable, thoroughly well bred, well educated, speak English, French and German, and they are very polite and courteous to strangers: they are also remarkable for their attention to decorum and modesty; the unmarried, without prudery, are highly virtuous, and the married present a pattern of conjugal fidelity. They are also very fond of dancing, particularly of waltzing, and they are much attached to English country dances, in which the most graceful Parisian belle seldom appears to any advantage.

The interior of the houses belonging to the higher classes in Amsterdam is very elegant; the decoration and furniture of their rooms is very much in the French style: they are also very fond of having a series of landscapes, painted in oil colours, upon the sides of the rooms, instead of stucco or paper, or of ornamenting them with pictures and engravings. The average rent of respectable houses, independent of taxes, is from one thousand to twelve hundred florins. The dinner hour, on account of the exchange, is about four o'clock in this city, and their modes of cooking unite those of England and France: immediately after dinner the whole company adjourn to coffee in the drawing-room.

The water in this part of Holland is so brackish and feculent, that it is not drank even by the common people. There are water-merchants, who are constantly occupied in supplying the

city, with drinkable water, which they bring in boats from Utrecht and Germany, in large stone bottles: the price of one of these bottles, containing a gallon, is about eightpence English. The poor, who cannot afford to buy it, substitute rain-water. The wines drank are principally claret and from the Rhine. The vintage of Portugal has no more admirers here than at Rotterdam, except amongst young Dutchmen, who have either been much in England, or are fond of the taste and fashions of our country.

DUTCH POLICE.

The laws in Holland against nocturnal disturbers of the peace are very severe. A few months before I was in Amsterdam, two young gentlemen of family and fortune had been condemned to pay ten thousand florins for having, when "flushed with the Tuscan grape," rather rudely treated two women of the lower orders. The night police of Holland would form an excellent model for that of England. The watchmen are young, strong, resolute and well appointed, but annoying to strangers, for they strike the quarter with a mallet on a board, and will haunt his repose all night, unless he is fortunate enough to sleep backwards, or until he becomes accustomed to the clatter. Midnight robberies and fires very seldom occur: to guard against the spreading of the latter, there are persons appointed, whose office it is to remain all day and all night in the towers or steeples of the highest churches, and as soon as they discern the flame, to suspend, if it be in the day, a flag; if in the night, a lantern towards the quarter of the city in which it rises, accompanied by the blowing of a trumpet. This vigilance, and the facility of procuring water in summer, the natural caution of the people, and their dread of such an accident, conspire to render it a very rare visitor.

LAWS RELATING TO DEBTORS.

Although, owing to the great frugality and industry of the people, an insolvent debtor is rather a rare character, consequently held in more odium in Holland than in most other countries, yet the laws of arrest are milder there than in England. If the debtor be a citizen or registered burgher, he is not subject to have his person seized at the suit of the creditor, until three regular summonses have been duly served upon him, to appear in the proper court, and resist the claim preferred against him, which process is completed in about a month; after which, if he does not obey it, his person is subject to arrest, but only when he has quitted his house; for in Holland a man's dwelling

is held even more sacred than in England, and no civil process whatever is capable of being served upon him, if he stands but on the threshold of his home. In this sanctuary he may set at defiance every claimant; if, however, he has the hardihood to appear abroad, without having satisfied or compromised his debt, he is then pretty sure, from the vigilance and activity of the proper officers, to be seized; in which case he is sent to a house of restriction, not a prison for felons, where he is maintained with liberal humanity, the expences of which, as well as of all the proceedings, must be defrayed by the creditor. Under these qualifications, every debtor is liable to arrest, let the amount of the debt be ever so small. The bankrupt laws of Holland differ from ours in this respect, that all the creditors must sign the debtor's certificate, or agreement of liberation: but if any refuse, the ground of their refusal is submitted to arbitrators, who decide whether the bankrupt shall, notwithstanding have his certificate or not.

AANSPREKKERS.

A passenger can seldom pass a street without seeing one or more public functionaries, I believe peculiar to this country: they are called aansprecker, and their office is to inform the friends and acquaintances of any one who dies, of the melancholy event. The dress of these death-messengers is a black gown, a band, a low cocked hat with a long crape depending behind. To pass from the shade of death to the light of love: a singular custom obtains upon the celebration of marriage amongst genteel persons, for the bride and bridegroom to send each a bottle of wine, generally fine hock, spiced and sugared, and decorated with all sorts of ribands, to the house of every acquaintance; a custom which is frequently very expensive. The Dutch have also a singular mode of airing linen and beds, by means of a trokenkorb, or fire-basket, which is about the size and shape of a magpie's cage, within which is a pan filled with burning turf, and the linen is spread over its wicker frame, or to air the bed, the whole machine is placed between the sheets. With an exception of the streets I have mentioned, and some others in that quarter of the city, they are not remarkable either for beauty or cleanliness. They are all paved with brick, and none of them have any divided flagstone foot-path for foot-passengers: however, the pavement is more handsome and comfortable than that of Paris; although in both cities the pedestrian has no walk that he can call his own, yet in Amsterdam he is more secure than in the French capital, on account of the few carriages, and the skill and caution of the drivers. In no capital in the world, not even ex-

cepting Petersburg, is the foot-passenger so nobly accommodated as in London. Most of the streets in Amsterdam are narrow; and many in which very opulent merchants reside, and great traffic is carried on, are not more than sixteen or seventeen feet wide.

The canals of this city are very convenient, but many of them most offensively impure, the uniform greenness of which is chequered only by dead cats, dogs, offal, and vegetable substances of every kind, which are left to putrify at the top, until the canal scavengers, who are employed to clean the canals, remove them: the barges which are used on these occasions, and the persons employed in them, present a very disgusting appearance; the mud which is raised by them, forms most excellent manure, and the sum it fetches in Brabant, is calculated to be equal to the expences of the voyage. Some of the most eminent Dutch physicians maintain that the effluvia arising out of the floating animal and vegetable matter of these canals, is not injurious, and in proof, during a contagious fever which ravaged this city, it was observed, that the inhabitants who resided nearest to the foulest canals, were not infected, whilst those who lived near purer water, only in a few instances escaped; but this by no means confirms the assertion, because those inhabitants who lived adjoining to foul canals, were enured to contagion from its habitual application, for the same reason that medical men and nurses generally escape infection, from being so constantly exposed to it. The fair criterion would be to ascertain whether, when the city is healthy, such quarters of it continue more so. The effluvia arising from putrid animal matter, by the medical people of this country, and of almost every other, is considered far from being noxious, but infinitely less injurious than that involved by the decomposition of vegetables: at the same time there are many offensive smells that are far from being unwholesome, for instance, that of the bilge-water of a ship, and others might be enumerated. The water of these canals is in general about eight or nine feet deep, and the mud at the bottom about six more. Except in very foggy nights, few deaths by drowning, considering the amount of the population, occur in these canals, and fewer would still happen, if they were guarded against by a railing, which is rarely erected in any part of the city. At night, as the city is well lighted, a passenger, unless he is blind, or very much inebriated, a disgraceful condition, which, as I have before observed, is not often displayed in Holland, is not very likely to experience a watery death.

However, to guard as much as possible against the gloomy consequence of these casualties, the keepers of all inns and

taverns, and all apothecaries in Amsterdam, and in every other city in Holland, are compelled under a heavy penalty to keep a printed paper, containing the most approved method of resuscitating the suspended animation of drowned persons, in a conspicuous part of their houses. The government is also very liberal in distributing rewards to those who, at their personal peril, rescue a fellow creature from destruction. Upon such occasions, gold, silver, or medals are bestowed, according to the risk and rank of the preserver. The first society for the restoring of drowned persons was formed in this city in 1767, and the utmost encouragement was every where given throughout the United Provinces, by the magistrates in particular, and afterwards by the states general, and the success of it has been equal to its humanity. To the Dutch nation the English are indebted for these admirable institutions, by which so many of our countrymen have at various times been snatched from the grasp of death, and restored as it were to a new existence, and to their agonized families. It is a curious circumstance to remark, that the visible disarrangement which the human frame experiences, from being a considerable time in water, is very little, so little that many are the instances where the sufferer has, in the first instance, displayed all the indicia of death, and has within a few hours been enabled to thank his deliverer in person. The body, during this temporary suspension of animation, resembles a clock, upon its pendulum being accidentally stopped, its works are not mutilated nor shaken out of their proper places, but are competent to renew their functions the moment the former is touched by some friendly hand.

THE EXCHANGE.

The exchange here is in the same style of architecture as that of Rotterdam, but larger. My astonishment here was even greater than what I experienced at the latter place; for, at the exchange hour, it was overflowing with merchants, brokers, agents, and all the busy motley characters who belong to commerce. From the prevailing activity, the appetite for accumulation here appeared to have experienced no checks from the inevitable calamities of war. My surprise was augmented by reflecting, with these appearances before me, upon the present and former commercial condition of the country. The principal causes which contributed to render Amsterdam so rich before the two last wars, were the invincible industry, the caution, and frugality of the people. The ancient merchants of Amsterdam preferred small gains with little risk, to less probable, and to larger profits: it was their creed, that more fortunes were raised

by saving and economy, with moderate advantages, than by bold, expensive, and perilous speculations. This golden rule they transmitted to their posterity, who have exhibited no great disposition to deviate from it. A Dutch merchant of the present day almost always calculates the chances for and against his success in any undertaking, which he will immediately relinquish unless they are very greatly in his favour, and as nearly reducible to certainty as possible: he very rarely over-trades himself, or extends his schemes beyond his capital: such was the foundation upon which the commerce of Amsterdam was raised.

The principal sources of commercial wealth to Holland, arose from her herring and Greenland fisheries, which employed a great portion of her population. The superior manner in which the Dutch pickle and preserve their herrings is peculiar to themselves, nor has it been in the power of England, or any other country, to find out the secret which lies, it is said, in the manner of gilling and salting those fish. The persons who are acquainted with the art, are bound by an oath never to impart it, hitherto religiously adhered to, and the disclosure of it is moreover guarded against by the laws of the country. This national source of wealth has been greatly impeded, in consequence of the Dutch having no herring fisheries of their own, but being obliged to seek them on the English coast at the proper season, where, particularly off Yarmouth, the herring shoals have been known to be six and seven feet deep with fish. The permission granted to the Dutch fishermen, to prosecute their occupation unmolested on our coasts, notwithstanding the war, was frequently withdrawn by our cruisers. Last year a private agreement took place between the two countries, and the indulgence was renewed, by which the Dutch were very abundantly supplied with their favourite fish: so much esteemed is it, ~~and the~~ first herring cured was always presented to the stadtholder, and opulent families have been known to give seven shillings, and even a guinea, for the first herrings brought to market.

COLONIAL COMMERCE OF THE DUTCH.

For more than a century the Dutch East-India Company enjoyed the monopoly of the fine spices, comprehending nutmegs, cloves, mace, cinnamon, &c. which constituted the principal branch of the Asiatic as well as the European commerce of Holland: 360,000 cloves were annually sent to Europe, and about 150,000 were sold in India; 250,000 lbs. of nutmeg, the produce of the island of Banda, used to be sold in Europe, and 100,000 lbs. in India. In Europe also 400,000 lbs. of cinnamon used to be brought to market, and 200,000 lbs. consumed.

in India. Batavia presents a wonderful instance of the enterprise of the Dutch, who, born themselves in a marshy country, below the level of the ocean, erected a kingdom in the fifth degree of north latitude, in the most prolific part of the globe, where the fields are covered with rice, pepper, and cinnamon, and the vines bear fruit twice a year. Although this colony remains to Holland, the Dutch spice-market must have very materially suffered, from the vigilance of our ships of war in various parts of the world, and particularly from the recent capture of her valuable spice ships returning home richly laden from that colony. The Dutch also carried on a large trade in rice, cotton, and pepper, and the Java coffee, which was thought to be second only to that of Mecca. The reader may, perhaps, be surprised to find that the amount of the spice exports should every year be the same. The Dutch East India Company was enabled to make this calculation in consequence of having acquired a tolerably exact knowledge of the quantity of each kind of spice that would be necessary for the consumption of the European markets, and never permitting any more to be exported. In this branch of trade they had no competition, and they were enabled to keep the price of their spices as high as they chose, by ordering what remained unsold at the price they had fixed upon it, to be burnt. Their spices gave them influence upon the trade of the north of Europe, in consequence of their being highly prized by the different nations on the shores of the Baltic, who furnished the Dutch with their grain, hemp, flax, iron, pitch, tar, masts, planks, &c. The surrender of Curaçoa to the British arms must also be severely felt. This island was always of great importance to the Dutch, the possession and commerce of which they were very desirous of retaining and extending. The Dutch West India Company, many years since, refused to exchange it for the Spanish island of Porto Rico. The commerce of Curaçoa formerly took up yearly about fifty large ships, upon an average of 300 tons each, and the quantity of goods annually shipped from Holland amounted to 500,000*l.* and the returns nearly doubled that sum. The exports from Holland consisted of German and Dutch linens, checks, East India goods, woollen and cotton manufactures, spices, cinnamon, building materials, and many other articles of ease and luxury. The imports to Europe were indigo, coffee, sugar, hides, cotton, dye-wood, tortoise-shell, varinas, Porto Rico tobacco, and occasionally cochineal. The Dutch also carried on a very flourishing trade to Turkey and the Levant, by selling their own, the Irish and English cloths, and purchasing tea, cocoa, ginger, and thread. The

commercial intercourses also between Holland and England were very important, in which the balance was greatly against the Dutch, which induced many, who were ignorant of their real character, to conclude, that they never could support so prodigious a drain of species as they have invariably experienced in such communications; an impression which subsides when it is considered that the Dutch consumed but little of what they imported from England, and that what they purchased they resold in an improved condition to other countries. A nation can only become rich from trade when its exports for the use of foreign states is in a greater proportion than its imports for its own consumption. An impression has gone forth, that a nation cannot be impoverished if the importation of foreign merchandise be purchased abroad by native commodity, and not with specie; whereas upon a nation striking the balance of her account with the country she may have dealt with, it will be found that the deficiency on the side of her exportation must be made up in specie. Hence an industrious and frugal people, like the Dutch, will, when their country is in a state of tranquillity, possess great advantages over most other nations. Industry increases the native commodity, whether it arises from the soil or the manufacture, and increases the exportation. Frugality will lessen the consumption, and of course increase the exportation of native, and reduce the importation of foreign produce, for home consumption. The excess of all native commodities is sure of a market, of which those who can sell the cheapest will be the masters: hence a frugal and industrious people will be able to live and accumulate, where those who are neither could not live. This spirit of industry and frugality has been for ages, and still continues to be the guardian of this nation, by which it was enabled to support its many, long, and costly wars, and finally to force the King of Spain, its antient master, to recognize its independent sovereignty. Although the Hollanders, before the last war, were the undisputed proprietors of the Indian spices, of the silks of India and China, and of the fine cotton manufactures of Indostan, till a period at no great distance the common people wore plain woollen cloth, and fed on fish and vegetables. So universally powerful was this propensity to economy, that formerly the common people, and even opulent merchants, never changed their fashions, and left off their clothes only because they were worn out. They have been known to purchase the coarse English cloth for their own wear, and sell their own fine Leyden cloths to Germany, Turkey, Portugal, and other countries: they also bought the cheapest butter and cheese in the north of England, and in Ireland, for their own consumption,

and sent the best of those articles produced in their own country to foreign markets. The wealth which many individuals accumulated by their parsimonious habits was astonishing.

Another source from which Amsterdam derived great wealth was the exchange and banking business. From her peculiar situation, vast credit, and extensive correspondence with every nation upon the face of the globe, this city has been the channel through which nearly three parts of the money remitted from one state to another in Europe have passed, and which have enriched the merchants by the customary commissions upon such remittances: to which may be added the duties payable upon all imports received from the manufactures of the western part of Germany, upon all goods which in their transit by the Rhine and by the Maas to foreign markets must pass through Amsterdam or Rotterdam, from which Holland must have derived a considerable revenue. In short, in other and better times, the trade with Great Britain, Persia, Russia, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Cochin and its dependencies, Molucca, China, Japan, Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Pomerania, Livonia, the possession of that important promontory the Cape of Good Hope, and the commerce of the Elbe, the Weser, and the Maas, all contributed to raise Amsterdam to the commercial renown which she once enjoyed. Yet, notwithstanding, under all her difficulties, arising from her territorial and marine losses by the war, the severity of the English blockade, the activity of the English cruizers, and of the French privateers, Holland still continues to carry on a considerable intercourse with her old connections, through the medium of neutral bottoms, secured by insurances effected frequently at the enormous premium of 20% per cent.

To return to the Exchange of this great city: I was much surprised with the confluence of people which surrounded one gentleman, who stood with his back towards one of the pillars, and were very eager to get a word or a whisper from him: upon enquiry this proved to be the acting partner of the house of Messrs. Hope; a house that, before the last war, could at any time dictate the exchange to Europe. This place is infested by a great number of Jew fruiterers, who practise all sorts of stratagems to set off their fruit, such as pinning the stalk of a fresh melon upon the bottom of a stale and rotten one, which had nearly succeeded with me. The melons in Holland are remarkably fine; and as a proof of their cheapness, I need only mention, that one morning, when strolling through the streets, I gave no more than the value of tenpence for a very large one, exquisitely flavoured.

THE MARINE SCHOOL.

I was much pleased with seeing the marine school, which, although its object is to form a nursery for naval officers, was, strange to relate, much neglected by the stadtholderian government, and was originally instituted, and afterwards supported, by the patriotic spirit of private individuals. The pupils are the children of citizens of all classes, and are received from seven to twelve years of age, upon the payment of a very moderate yearly stipend. Their education and treatment are the same as in similar institutions here and in other countries. In the yard is a brig completely rigged, for the instruction of the boys.

In the north-east part of the city stands the *Rapshuis*, or rasp-house, in which criminals, whose offences are not of a capital nature, are confined. A narrow court, receding from the street, in which are the keeper's lodge and apartments for the different officers, form the entrance of this prison. Over the gate are some insignificant, painted, wooden figures, representing criminals sawing logwood, and Justice holding a rod over them. The gaoler, apparently a good-natured, merry fellow, shewed me into the inner court, forming an oblong square, on three sides of which the cells of the prisoners, and on the fourth side the warehouses, containing the ground dying wood, are arranged. This yard is very much encumbered with piles of log-wood, which sadly reduce the miserable pittance of space allotted for the prisoners to walk in. In one corner, in terrorem, is a whipping-post, with another little figure of Justice holding a rod. In this yard I saw some of the men sawing the *Campeachy-wood*, with a saw of prodigious large teeth, which appeared to be a work of extreme labour; and upon my so expressing myself to the gaoler, through my *lacquais de place*, he informed me, that at first it required a painful exertion of strength, but that the prisoners by practice were enabled to saw it with ease, and to supply their weekly quota of two hundred pounds weight of sawed pieces, and also to make a variety of little articles in straw, bone, wood, and copper, to sell to those who visited the prison. The prison dress consists of a jacket, or surtout of white woollen, white shirts, hats, flannel stockings, and leather shoes. The conduct of these unfortunate persons is annually reported to the magistrate, who regulates the period of their confinement, where the case will admit of an exercise of discretion, by such report.

In a corner of the yard I was shewn a cell, in which, if the person who is confined in it does not incessantly pump out the water let into it, he must inevitably be drowned; but the gaoler informed me, that it had not been used for many years, and that it was now only an object of terror. In the warehouses, which are very shabby,

were piles of rasped wood for dying of various colours; amongst others, the *Evonymus Europæus*, the *Morus Tinctoria*, and the *Hæmotoxylum Campechianum*. I was informed, that women who are attached to the prisoners, are permitted to visit them at stated periods, without any restraint, by which one of the great political objects of Holland, the encouragement of population, does not suffer by this wholesome separation of the faulty from the blameless members of society. The number of prisoners amounted to 124; they were far from looking healthy; this I attributed more to the height of the walls enclosing the yard, which, as well as the number of logwood piles, must greatly impede the circulation of the air, than to excess of toil and severity of treatment. The prisoners are not encumbered with irons, and I should think an escape from such a prison might be easily effected.

THE WORK-HOUSE.

From the rasp-house I proceeded to the work-house, in the east quarter of the city, close to the Muider and Prince Gragts, an establishment which I believe has no parallel in the world. It is a vast building: the purposes to which it is applied are partly correctional and partly charitable. The number of persons within its walls, when I saw it, amounted to seven hundred and fifty of both sexes, and the annual expence is about one hundred thousand florins. In the rooms belonging to the governors and directresses, are some exquisite pictures by Vandyke, Rembrandt, and Jordaens. In a vast room very cleanly kept and well ventilated, were an immense number of women, occupied in sewing, spinning, &c.; amongst them was a fine, handsome, hearty looking Irish woman, who had been confined two years at the instance of her husband, for being more fond of a little ~~true~~ ^{to} Schidam gin than of her liege spouse. In another vast apartment, secured by massy iron railing and grated windows, were about seventy female convicts, who appeared to be in the highest state of discipline, and were very industriously and silently engaged in making lace, &c. under the superintendency of a governess. From the walls of the room were suspended instruments of punishment, such as scourges, irons for the legs, &c. which, we were informed, were not spared upon the slightest appearance of insubordination. These women are always kept apart from the rest. The wards of men, and the school-rooms for a great number of children, who are educated and maintained under the same roof, as well as the dormitories, were in the highest state of neatness. In another part of this building, never shewn to strangers, were confined about ten young ladies,

of very respectable, and some of very high families, sent there by their parents or friends for undutiful deportment, or some other domestic offence—they are compelled to wear a particular dress as a mark of degradation, obliged to work a stated number of hours a day, and are occasionally whipped; they are kept apart by themselves, and no one but a father, mother, brother, or sister, can see them during their confinement, and then only by an order from one of the directors. Husbands may here, upon complaint of extravagance, drunkenness, &c. duly proved, send their wives to be confined and receive the discipline of the house; and wives their husbands, for two, three, and four years together. The allowance of food is abundant and good, and each person is permitted to walk for a proper time in the courts within the building, which are spacious. Every ward is kept locked, and no one can go in or out without the especial permission of the proper officer.

THE PLANTATION.

Close to this place is the plantation, a very large portion of ground within the city, laid out in avenues, and a great number of little gardens, formed into several divisions by streets of pretty country and summer-houses; and the whole is surrounded by canals. To this *rus in urbe*, such of the citizens and their families repair in the summer to dine or drink tea, whose finances, or spirit of economy will not admit of their having a house in the country. To render these rural indulgences as cheap as possible, three or four families join in renting one small cottage, or perhaps a summer-house and garden. Never did any spot devoted to the pleasure of nature exhibit more silence and solemnity: no sports, no pastime, no laugh nor gambol: the females drink their tea and work, and the men smoke in peaceful taciturnity, and scarcely move their eyes from their different occupations, unless some very animating and attractive object passes.

FUNERALS.

In my way from the plantation to the elegant country residence of a Dutch merchant of high respectability, I passed, a few miles from Amsterdam, two burial places of the Jews, who wisely bury their dead in the country; the other inhabitants follow the baneful practice of burying in the churches and churchyards in the city, where the catholics deposit their dead very frequently in protestant churches. In Holland the honours of funeral pomp are scarcely ever displayed: the spirit of economy, which seems to be the tutelary saint of these moist regions, seldom incurs a further expence than a plain coffin, which costs little,

and some genuine tears or sighs, which cost nothing. To describe the numerous churches, chapels, and conventicles of the religious of all persuasions, who since the revolution live in cordial amity with each other, and with the government under which they enjoy the rights of equal citizenship, would be a laborious and not a very interesting labour. The quakers here, and in every other town in Holland, are very few: the Jews and the anabaptists are very numerous, and there are many Roman catholics. Before the revolution the clergy of the established church were paid by the government; they, as well as every other priest or pastor, are now supported at fixed salaries, raised rateably amongst the inhabitants of the parishes in which they officiate, each sect supporting its own minister. In every parish registers of births, marriages, and deaths, are regularly kept. The church-yards are not disgraced, like ours, with low facetious epitaphs, more calculated to make the living merry, than to lead them to serious meditation. Each parish maintains its own poor, under the controul of a council. The sabbath is kept in Holland with the same solemnity as in England. The great number of charitable institutions in Amsterdam, in which the sick and the friendless of all persuasions are received and cherished, without any recommendation but that of affliction, though to enumerate them here would not be very entertaining to the reader.

LITERARY SOCIETIES.

There are several literary societies in Amsterdam, which are supported with equal spirit and liberality. The Felix Meritis is the principal public institute; it is supported by private subscriptions; no money is paid upon admission; foreigners are admitted with a subscriber's ticket, but no native can be received unless he is a subscriber. This place is a large building, containing some fine apartments, particularly the music-room, which, during the concerts, is much resorted to by the most opulent and fashionable families, many of whom play, with the assistance of professional performers. There are also rooms devoted to philosophy and the arts. In the painting-room I was shewn some works of the modern Dutch painters, which were not above mediocrity; they appear to have lost that exquisite art of colouring, which so eminently distinguished their predecessors. This circumstance is very singular, considering how many ingenious artists this city has produced, amongst whom may be enumerated the three Does, Griffier, Schellinks, the celebrated Adrian, and William Vandervelde, &c. M. Smit, and Mr. De Winter, very opulent merchants, have a fine collection of paintings. Mr. Van Brenton has also a valuable cabinet, in which are the only

Venetian pictures supposed to be in Holland; and in the surgery is a noble picture by Rembrandt.

THE THEATRE.

The Dutch theatre is large and handsome, and has a noble front. On the night I was there, Madam Wattier performed: she occupies the same place in the public estimation in Holland as the immortal Siddons does in that of England: she is advanced in years, but still continues to display great tragic qualities: at the same time her manner is rather too vehement for an English auditor. The principal dancer in the ballet was Mademoiselle Polly, who dances with great agility. The scenery is good. During the interval between the acts, the people quit the house, to take refreshments and walk in the open air: upon these occasions the national spirit is again displayed: as there is no half-price, little boys hover round the doors, and bid upon each other for the purchase of the re-admission tickets of those who come out, for the purpose of re-selling them at a profit. The French theatre is small but neat, and tolerably well supplied with performers. After the play it is usual to go to the Rondell, where the higher classes of the women of the town assemble to waltz. This assembly-room, like the spill-house of Rotterdam, is frequented by tradesmen, their wives and their children. After hearing so much of this place, I was greatly disappointed on viewing it. The assembly-room is small and shabby, the music wretched, and adjoining is a small square court, with three or four trees in it, scantily decorated with about a dozen lamps. Such is the celebrated Rondell of Amsterdam, which the Dutch who have never visited England contend is superior to our Vauxhall.

BROCK.

With a large and very agreeable party, I made an excursion into North Holland, where we visited Brock, one of the most curious, and one of the prettiest villages in Holland. The streets are divided by little rivulets; the houses and summer-houses, formed of wood painted green and white, are very handsome, though whimsical in their shape, and are all remarkably neat. They are like so many mausoleums, for the silence of death reigns throughout the place. The inhabitants, who have formed a peculiar association amongst themselves, scarcely ever admit a stranger within their doors, and hold but little intercourse with each other. During our stay, we saw only the faces of two of them, and those by a stealthy peep. They are very rich, so much so, that many of their culinary utensils are of solid gold.

The shutters of the windows in front of the houses are always kept shut, and the principal entrance is never opened but on the marriage or the death of one of the family. The pavement of the street is tessellated with all sorts of little pebbles and cockle-shells, and are kept in such exquisite order, that a dog or cat are never seen to trespass upon it; and it is said, that formerly there was a law which obliged all passengers to take off their shoes in the summer when they walked upon it; that a man was once reprimanded for sneezing in the streets; and latterly, a clergyman, upon being appointed to fill the church on the demise of a very old predecessor, was treated with great shyness by his flock, because he did not (unwittingly) take off his shoes when he ascended the pulpit. The gardens of this village produce deer, dogs, peacocks, chairs, tables, and ladders, cut out in box. Such a museum of vegetable statuary I never witnessed before. Brock represents a sprightly ball-room well lighted up, without a soul in the orchestra or upon the floor. From Brock we proceeded to Saardam, which at a small distance seems to be a city of wind-mills. The houses are principally built of wood, every one of which has a little fantastic baby-sort of garden. Government has discontinued building ships of war here, which used to be a source of great prosperity to the town; however, its numerous paper and sawing mills employ a vast number of hands, and produce great opulence to the place. We paid our homage to the wooden cottage where Peter the Great resided when he came to this place to learn the art of ship-building; it is very small, and stands in a garden, and is in tolerable preservation. The women in North Holland are said to be handsomer than in any other part of the country. As I was very desirous of commencing my tour on the Rhine, I was glad to return to Amsterdam.

CLIMATE OF HOLLAND.

The climate of Holland is moist, but far from being unpleasant or unwholesome, although some travellers have thought proper to say it consists of six months bad weather. The principal divisions of the country are at present the same as they were during the republic, namely, Holland, Overijssel, Zealand, Friesland, Ustrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, and Zutphen, besides the Texel and other islands; but the king has it in contemplation, it is said, of speedily dividing the Kingdom into ten departments. Holland contains 113 cities or large towns, 1400 villages, and nearly 2,800,000 inhabitants. The military force of Holland amounts to about 40,000 cavalry and infantry. A population and a force which cannot but

astonish the reader, when he reflects upon the size, soil, and position of the country.

I intended to have taken the treckschuyt to Ustrecht, as the river Amstel is all the way lined with the most beautiful country-houses and grounds in Holland; but as some friends of mine in Amsterdam obligingly proposed accompanying me, and were strongly desirous that I should see Naarden, Soestdyke, and some other places in our way, the boat was relinquished for the carriage. I however recommend the traveller not to omit going to Ustrecht by water. Excellent carriages and horses are always to be procured at a large livery stable keeper's who resides near the Utrechtsche Poort, or Ustrecht Gate, in Amsterdam, close to the house from which the Ustrecht treckschuyls proceed; for these he must make the best bargain he can, as he will be wholly at the mercy of the proprietor. The inconvenience and imposition arising from travelling in Holland are frequently severely felt, on account of there being no regular posting. In Amsterdam the price of a carriage for the day is fourteen florins, and for this the coachman provides for himself and horses. The back of our carriage towards the horses, folded into two divisions, resting upon the fixed seat, so that when the cushion was placed upon it, the seat was only a little raised; thus the coach either became close or open: the roof was fixed. In this vehicle, with a pair of good horses, we set out for Naarden, a clean pretty little town, more skillfully and strongly fortified than any other town in Holland: here the same tranquillity reigns as in most of the other Dutch country towns. From the ramparts, which present a very agreeable walk, there is a fine view of the Zuyder Zee on the northern side, the water of which being in many places very shallow, at a distance resembled moving mounds of sand. Here, and throughout the whole journey, our coachman gave the preference to coffee, of which the Dutch are remarkably fond, instead of wine or spirits, with his dinner. From economy, as I observed at this place and elsewhere, the middling people keep a bit of sugar-candy in their mouth when they drink tea or coffee, instead of using sugar in the way we do. Our host regaled us after dinner with a volunteer desert of some very delicious pears, which grew in very great profusion in his garden.

DUTCH FARMS.

From this place to Soestdyke, one of the two country palaces of the King allowed by the constitution, the roads are very sandy, and we were obliged to take four horses. In the neighbourhood of Naarden the country is covered with buck-wheat;

which, after we had advanced about four English miles, began to undulate, and present a very beautiful appearance. The many spires and chimnies of villages peeping above the trees in all directions, the small divisions of land, the neat and numerous little farmhouses which abounded on all sides of us, presented a picture of industry and prosperity seldom seen in any other country. The sound wisdom displayed by the Dutch in preventing the overgrowth and consolidation of farms, cannot fail to strike the observation of the traveller, and particularly an English one. By this admirable policy, Holland is enabled to maintain its comparative immense population, under the great disadvantage of a soil far from being in general genial; hence it is but little burthened with paupers, and hence the abundance of its provision. In England, on the contrary, the farmers, grown opulent by availing themselves of the calamities of unproductive seasons, and consequent scarcity, have for many years past omitted no opportunity, by grasping at every purchase, to enlarge their estates; and hence a proportion of land, which, if separated into small allotments, would give food, and a moderate profit, to *many* families, is now monopolized by *one*; and those who ought to be farmers on a small scale, are now obliged to work as labourers in the fields of their employers, at wages that are not sufficient, if their families were numerous, to prevent the necessity of their applying for parochial aid. If some legislative system could be effected to restrain this monstrous and growing evil, by that ardent and cordial lover of his country, and particularly of the lower classes of society, Mr. Whitbread, who has so laudably in parliament applied his enlightened mind to ameliorate the condition of the poor, it would be one of the most beneficial measures that ever received the fiat of the British senate. I do not repine to see the farmers, or any other respectable class of men, receive and enjoy the honest fruits of their own enterprise and industry; I could see with less regret all those decent and frugal habits of the farm, which once characterised the yeomanry of England, superseded by the folly and fashions of the gay and dissipated; the farmer drinking his bottle of port instead of some cheap salubrious ale; his daughter, no longer brought up in the dairy, returning from a boarding-school, to mingle the sounds of her harp with lowing of cows, or reluctantly going to the market of the adjoining town, tricked out in awkward, misplaced finery, with a goose in one hand and a parasol in the other, did not the poor classes of society become poorer, and the humble more humiliated, by the cause of this marvellous metamorphosis in rural economy. In Holland, I was well informed,

there is not a farm that exceeds fifty acres, and very few of that extent. There the economy observed in and about the "peasant's nest," is truly gratifying: the farmer, his wife, and a numerous progeny, exhibit faces of health and happiness; their dwelling is remarkable for its neatness and order throughout; in the orchard behind, abounding with all sorts of delicious fruits, the pigs and sheep fatten; three or four sleeky cows feed in a luxuriant adjoining meadow; the corn land is covered with turkies and fowls, and the ponds with ducks and geese. Such is the picture of a Dutch farm.

Notwithstanding the enormous tax upon land, and a tax upon cattle per head, an imposition unknown to any other country, the expence of contributing to the support of the dykes, the duty on salt, and a variety of other charges, amounting to more than fifty per cent. on the value of their land, the beneficial effects arising from small farms, and the simplicity, diligence, and economy of the Dutch farmer, enable him to discharge those expences, and his rent with punctuality, and with the surplus of his profit to support his family in great comfort. To these causes alone can be attributed the astonishing supplies which are sent to the different markets. North Holland, so celebrated for its cheese, supplies Enkuysen, upon an average, with two hundred and fifty thousand pounds weight of that valuable article of life, and Alkmaar with three hundred thousand, *per week*. In a very small space in the isle of Amak, within about two English miles of Copenhagen, no less than four thousand people descendants of a colony from East Friesland, invited over by one of the kings of Denmark to supply the city with milk, cheese, butter, and vegetables, are enabled to live and flourish, and continue to supply that city with these articles. I remember being highly delighted with seeing their dwellings and little luxuriant gardens; nor did I ever see so many persons living within so small a space, except in an encampment. An experienced English agriculturist who had visited Holland, informed me that he thought the Dutch farmers did not sufficiently dress their land. The vegetable soil is in general so thin, that trees in exposed situations are usually topped, to prevent their being thrown down by the wind. In that part of Holland which I am describing, on account of its being well sheltered, there is a large growth of wood. Upon leaving the romantic and exquisitely picturesque village of Barèn, we entered the royal chace, which occupies a vast

track of ground : in this forest the trees are generally poor and thin, but I saw some fine beeches amongst them. On the borders of this chase are two country villas, in the shape of pagodas, belonging to a private gentleman, the novelty and gaudy colouring of which served to animate the sombre appearance of the forest behind.

PALACE OF SOESTDYKE.

In the evening we reached the principal inn at Soestdyke, lying at the end of a very long avenue in the forest, chiefly filled with young oaks, a little fatigued with the tedium produced by the heavy roads through which we had waded ; however, after some refreshing tea taken under the trees, near the house, we proceeded to view the palace, formerly a favorite sporting chateau of the Orange family. A tolerable plain brick house on the left of the entrance, composed the lodge, and after passing through a large court, we ascended by a flight of steps to the principal entrance of this palace, if palace it may be called, for a residence more unworthy of a prince I have never seen. The only part of the house in any degree deserving of notice was the hall, the sides of which were decorated with the emblems of rural recreation, the implements of husbandry, and all the apparatus for hunting, fishing, and shooting, tolerably well executed. The rooms were principally white-washed, and destitute of furniture : the windows were large, and the panes of glass very small, fastened with lead, such as are used in cottages : in short, the whole palace presented the appearance of a country mansion in England of the date of Charles the First, deserted by the family to whom it belonged, and left to the care of the tenants who rent the estate to whom it belongs. Nothing could be more dreary and desolate. The king and queen partook of a cold collation here a short time before I visited it, provided by the family who rented the place of the state, and occupied it when we visited it. I was not surprised to hear that the royal family staid only one hour, during which they scarcely ventured out of a large naked room at the back part of the house, called the grand saloon : one of the young princes gave a son of the gentleman who occupied the premises, an elegant watch set round with brilliants. I could not help reflecting a little upon the disgust this visit must have given to the queen, who had just arrived from Paris, and from all the voluptuous and tasteful magnificence of the new imperial court. The palace is surrounded by a

ditch half filled with green stagnant water, the dulness of which was only relieved by the croaking of a legion of undisturbed frogs. The gardens and grounds, which abounded with hares, are very formally disposed into dull, unshaded, geometrical walks. After supper, a brilliant moon and cloudless night, attracted us into one of the most beautiful and majestic avenues of beeches I ever saw, immediately opposite the palace.

In this wood are several genteel country houses, many of which were formerly occupied by those who belonged to the Orange court. The inn here is much frequented, the accommodations of which are good, by the people of Amsterdam, who frequently make parties to it; and it is the great resort of those married couples fresh from the altar, until the honey-moon is in her wane.

THE PYRAMID.

In the morning about five o'clock, we set off for Zeyst, or Ziest, and passed through a large tract of champagne country, interspersed with short brushwood, the dull monotony of which was at last relieved by a vast pyramid, erected by the French troops who were encamped in the immense open space in which it stands, amounting to 30,000 men, under the command of General Marmont. On the four sides are the following inscriptions:

INSCRIPTION ON THE GRAND FRONT.

"This pyramid was raised to the august Emperor of the French, Napoleon the First, by the troops encamped in the plain of Zeyst, being a part of the French and Batavian army, commanded by the commander in chief Marmont.

INSCRIPTION ON THE SECOND FRONT.

Battles gained by the Emperor.

"The battles of Montenotte, de Dego, and Millesimo, of Mondovi, the passage of the Po, the battle of Lodi, engagement of Berguetto, the passage of the Mincio, the battles of Lonato, of Castiglione, of the Brenta, of St. Georges, of Arcola, of la Favourite, of Chebreis, of Sediman, of Montabor, of Aboukir, of Marengo.

Wherever he fought he was victorious.

Through him the empire of France was enlarged by one-third.

He filled the world with glory."

INSCRIPTION ON THE THIRD FRONT.

"He terminated the civil war; he destroyed all cabals, and caused a wise liberty to succeed to anarchy; he re-established religious worship, he restored the public credit, he enriched the public treasury, he repaired the roads and constructed new ones, he made harbours and canals, he

caused the arts and sciences to prosper, he ameliorated the condition of the soldiers—the general peace was his work.”

ON THE FOURTH FRONT.

“The troops encamped in the plains of Zeyst, making part of the French and Batavian army, commanded by the general in chief Maruon, and under his orders, by the generals of division, Grouchy, Boudet, Vignolle, the Batavian Lieutenant, General Dumonceau, the Generals of Brigade, Soyez, &c. [here follows a long list of the names of the other officers, too tedious to enumerate; also a very long list of the different divisions of the regiments, to which the above officers belonged,] have erected this monument to the glory of the Emperor of the French, Napoleon the First, at the epoch of his ascending the throne, and as a token of admiration and love, generals, officers, and soldiers, have all co-operated with equal ardour: it was commenced the 24th *Fructidor*, 12 ann. and finished in *thirty-two days*.”

The whole was designed by the chief of the battalion of engineers. The total height of this stupendous monument is about 36 metres, or 110 French feet; that of the obelisk, exclusive of the *socle*, is about 13 metres, or 42 French feet. One end of the base of the pyramid is 48 metres, or 148 feet. From the summit of the obelisk the eye ranges over a vast extent of country—Utrecht, Amersfort, Amsterdam, Haarlem, the Hague, Dordrecht, Leyden, Gorcum, Breda, Arnheim, Nimeguen, Bois le Duc, Cleves, Zutphen, Deventer, Swol, and a great part of the Zuyder Zee, may be distinctly seen on a fine clear day.

Upon this spot it is in contemplation immediately to erect a new city, the building of which, and the cutting of a canal to be connected with the adjoining navigation, have already commenced. Zeyst is a very handsome town, or rather an assemblage of country houses, it abounds with agreeable plantations and pleasant woods, and is much frequented in the summer by the middling classes of wealthy merchants from Amsterdam, who sit under the trees and smoke with profound gravity, occasionally looking at those who pass, without feeling any inclination to move themselves—what an enviable state of indifference to all the bustle and broil of this world! upon which they seem to gaze as if they were sent into it to be spectators and not actors. Who, upon reflection and sober comparison, would not prefer this “even tenour” to the peril of the chace and the fever of dog-day balls!

The principal hotel here is upon a noble scale, the politest attentions are paid to strangers, and the charges are far from being extravagant. The only striking object of curiosity in the town is a very spacious building, formerly

belonging to Count Zinzendorf, and now to a fraternity of ingenious and industrious Germans, amounting to eighty persons, who have formed themselves into a rational and liberal society, called the Herrenhuthers, or Moravians. This immense house, in its object, though not in its appearance, resembles our Exeter Change, but infinitely more the splendid depot of goods of every description, kept by a very wealthy and highly respectable Englishman of the name of Hoy at Petersburg. Upon ringing at the principal entrance, we were received with politeness by one of the brotherhood, in the dress of a layman, who unlocked it and conducted us into ten good-sized rooms, each containing every article of those trades most useful, such as watchmakers, silversmiths, saddlers, milliners, grocers, &c. Many of these articles are manufactured by the brethren who have been tutored in England, or have been imported from our country. The artificers work upon the basement story, at the back of the house, and no sound of trade is heard; on the contrary, the tranquillity of a monastery pervades the whole.

After inspecting the different shop-rooms, it will repay the trouble of the traveller to make interest to see the other part of the premises, shewn only upon particular application. The refectory is a large room, kept with great cleanliness; and the meals of the fraternity, if I may judge by so much of the dinner as was placed upon the table, are very far from partaking of the simple fare of conventual austerity. A *bon vivant* would have risen from their table without a murmur. In this room were several music-stands, used every other evening at a concert; the vocal and instrumental music of which is supplied by certain members of the brotherhood, who I was told excelled in that elegant accomplishment. In the chapel, which was remarkably neat, there was an organ, and on the wall was a very energetic address from one of the society upon his retiring from it, handsomely framed and glazed. The dormitory upon the top of the house partook of the same spirit of cleanliness and order. Never was any sectarian association formed upon more liberal and comfortable principles. In short, it is a society of amiable, industrious, and agreeable men, who form a coalition of ingenuity and diligence for their support, and benevolently remit the surplus of their income, after defraying their own expences, to their brethren established in the East and West Indies, and other parts of the world. They marry whenever they please; but

those who taste of this blissful state are not permitted to have the chambers in the house, although they may contribute their labours, and receive their quota of subsistence from it.

UTRECHT.

After we had amused ourselves with roving about this agreeable place, we set off for Utrecht. I have before mentioned the manner in which the Dutch compute distances, and although I had for some time been accustomed to hear hours substituted for miles, yet as I was no longer on the canals, it sounded somewhat strange to hear a charming lady of our party observe, which she did with perfect Dutch propriety, when we were speaking of the probable time in which we should arrive at Utrecht: "Surely our horses must be poor indeed if they cannot go six hours in *three*." Our road lay through a very rich and beautiful country, well drained, abounding with neat compact little farms, orchards, wood plantations, the lofty and venerable towers of Utrecht appearing full in our view all the way. We passed by the mall, which has a handsome stone entrance, is upwards of a mile in length, and is bordered with a triple row of trees, with a carriage road on each side. When this city surrendered to the arms of Louis the Fourteenth in 1672, he was uncommonly delighted with this walk, yet, from knowing that it was equally admired by the citizens, he threatened to have every tree felled to the ground, unless they raised a very large contribution, which was immediately produced, and the mall preserved. If the menace of the conqueror was sincere, which I can scarcely believe, he united the tasteless barbarism of a Vandal to the ferocious rapacity of a tyrant. Louis overran this province, and the greatest part of Guelderland, Overysse, and Holland, at the head of one hundred thousand men, in less than a month, a rapidity of victory almost incredible, though infinitely surpassed by the arms of France in the present times. The progress of the French king was celebrated in the following gasconade:

*Una dies Lotharos, Burgundos helalomas una
Una domat Batavos luna, quid annus erit?*

I think Utrecht one of the most beautiful cities in Holland, next to the Hague, which it is said to exceed in size. The streets are wide, and the buildings handsome, amongst which the hand of the Spanish architect is frequently to be

traced. The canals are about twenty feet below the street; and the access to them for the servants of the adjoining houses is by a subterranean passage. These canals are very much neglected, and were covered in all directions with cabbage-stalks, leaves, and other vegetable substances, left to putrify upon the surface. There I first beheld a branch of the Rhine unmingled with other waters. This mighty river has partaken of the mutability to which every thing sublunary is subjected. Near the village of Cooten, about twelve miles from Utrecht, the traveller may contemplate corn waving and cattle depasturing where once it rolled its broad majestic waters, now diminished to a little streamlet: its division into the two great copious and navigable streams takes place a little above Nimeguen: the right branch retains the name of the Rhine; the left is called the Waal, a word expressive of a defensive boundary, which separated the antient Batavians from their hostile neighbours on the southern border: the former, during its superabundance, produced a small branch called the Lack, which ran near the little city of Wyk, by Deuſtede, directed its course towards Utrecht, upon which it bestowed the name of *Ultra rejectum*, passed through Woerden Leyden, and disemboogued itself into the German Ocean at Catwyk: the latter branch in rolling its waters towards the sea, incorporated with the Maas, and their united streams were called the New Maas, under which name they flow by Dort, Rotterdam, and other cities, into the sea.

Upon the subsiding of a great inundation, the frequent error of the Low Countries, it was found that the Rhine had changed its channel, and flowed into that of the Lack, to which it had given birth, in consequence of its channel having been amazingly deepened by the watery irruption. This branch, in consequence of the power of its waters not being able to bear down the obstructions opposed to it, is not able to force its way to the sea, and is stopped in its course near the village of Catwyk by mountains of accumulated sand, and being compelled to regurgitate, is distributed over, and lost in the neighbouring canals.

The French, under Louis the Fourteenth, retained possession of Utrecht for little more than a year, during which the magnificent monarch was so delighted with the place, that he held his court here in great gaiety and splendor; but the Dutch were heartily rejoiced to be relieved of this honor, and hailed with exultation the hour in which with his troops he retired from the country; this movement, how-

ever, was preceded by the demolition of their fortifications, raising heavy contributions, and exercising many wanton acts of cruelty and oppression, which excited such disgust, that nearly all the inhabitants of the province resolved upon transporting themselves to Batavia. Although by this conquest the French had left an indelible impression of disgust behind them, and the regular forces of the town amounted to seven thousand men, and the inhabitants breathed nothing but vengeance against the Prince of Orange, this city surrendered to the arms of Prussia, who espoused his cause, in the year 1787. The rhyngrave of Salm, who had the command of the troops, covered himself with great disgrace, by this unresisting, cowardly, and, as it was generally believed, treacherous surrender of the place. In 1795, when the French troops once more approached the town, its gates were again thrown open, and they were received more as brethren than as conquerors; but the inhabitants very soon repented of this second visit, for the impositions they levied were extremely severe, and the French officers selected the best rooms in the best houses for their quarters, to the great inconvenience of families so oppressed. Upon two or three doors of very elegant mansions I saw little boards fastened, with the names and rank of the French officers who had taken up their lodgings within. The cathedral must once have been an enormous and magnificent structure, if I may judge by the dome or tower, the only part which remains perfect. The ruins present a fine specimen of the Gothic, some of the ornaments of which were in high preservation, and very beautiful. In the cloisters there is an arch, the pillars of which are apparently fastened with ropes, which upon examination prove to be done in stone, and admirably executed. The tower is of the astonishing height of 464 feet, and from the top, on a clear day, no less than fifty-one walled cities and towns may be seen; and the pyramid erected in honour of Napoleon at Zeyst presents a noble appearance in this expanded view. About midway in our ascent, we entered a vast vaulted chamber with galleries in it, in which two old women reside, who, if they require it, supply the visitors with schidam and biscuits to refresh themselves in their ascension, which are presented to them in a little room, the windows of which are scarcely visible to the beholder on the outside, commanding a very wide and agreeable prospect. Upon the top of the tower there is a very numerous and fine-toned set of chimes. The ramparts are about four miles round the tower, and afford a

very agreeable and picturesque walk. Utrecht was once a rich and powerful see, the bishops of which were sovereign princes, who laying the crosier aside, and assuming the sword, frequently waged bloody warfare with their rivals the prince bishops of Leyden.

The same causes which have thinned the number of students of Leyden, have reduced those of Utrecht, which do not exceed 360, most of whom are the sons of the inhabitants of the city. Two-thirds of the merchants of this place have connections with London. There are several endowments of a charitable nature, which do honour to the city, many of which were originally instituted, and principally supported by English families resident here before the revolution. A botanic garden has lately been formed near the dome of the cathedral; it is upon a small scale, but appeared to be well arranged.

A traveller can scarcely enter a town in Holland which has not given birth to some genius, whose fame reflects lustre upon his country. Utrecht enrol amongst those illustrious sages who resided, or were born within its walls, and who have bestowed upon it immortal celebrity, the learned Gronovius, the critic; Grævius, his pupil, one of the most profound writers of the middle of the sixteenth century, so well known for his *Thesaurus Antiquitatum et Historiarum Italiæ*, in thirteen folio volumes, and the two erudite Burmans.

ANECDOTES OF MORE, POELEMURG, WATERLOO, &c.

At Utrecht also was born, in 1549, Pope Adrian the Sixth, to whom the Emperor Maximilian entrusted the education of his grandson, Charles the Fifth, and who afterwards filled the pontifical throne with piety and learning, with dignity and mildness: this distinguished personage, after having acquired his classical knowledge at the university of this city, and his philosophical at the college of Louvain, received the degree of doctor in divinity in 1491, the expence of which he was unable to sustain, and which was defrayed by Margaret, sister to Edward IV. of England. I was informed that the house he resided in, a fine Gothic building, was still standing, and that it was adorned with several curious basso-relievos, but time would not permit me to visit the venerable remains. This city had also the honour of producing the Chevalier Antonio More, who was born here in 1519, where he studied under John Schoorel, with whom, having made considerable progress, he improved himself in design at Rome, and in the true prin-

ciples of colouring at Venice : one of his historical compositions, from the subject of the resurrection, was in such high estimation as to be publicly exhibited at the fair at St. Germain, before it was purchased by the Prince of Condé. More has the reputation of having imitated nature very closely and happily ; his manner is strong, just, and bold, and in his portraits there is great character and life. He was much esteemed by the Emperor Charles V. and was by him sent to Portugal to paint the portraits of the king, the queen, who was the sister of the emperor, and their daughter, afterwards the Queen of Spain. For these portraits he received six hundred ducats, and many valuable presents ; and to shew their admiration of his talents, the Portuguese nobility presented him, in the name of that order, with a chain of gold valued at a thousand ducats. He was employed by most of the princes of Europe, and at every court his paintings excited universal applause. Queen Mary the First of England, presented him with a chain of gold and a pension. Upon his quitting London and settling in Spain, a singular circumstance befel him : one day as the king, who was very fond of him, and his great patron, was talking to him in a very familiar manner, he gave More in jocularity a sharp tap on the arm, which the irritable painter mistaking for indignity, instead of an act of good humour and condescension, resented by striking the king with his maul-stick : a folly which had nearly in its consequence proved fatal to him, and which compelled him to quit the country with all possible celerity. His last work was the Circumcision, intended for the cathedral church at Antwerp, but which he did not live to finish.

Cornelius Poelenburg, another artist of high distinction, was born at Utrecht in 1586. He first studied under Abraham Bloenart, and afterward, upon going to Rome, became enamoured with the works of that divine artist Raphael, whose exquisite grace in the nude figure he endeavoured to imitate. His style was entirely new, and he surpassed all his contemporaries in the delicacy of his touch, in the sweetness of his colouring, and in the selection of fortunate objects and situations. His skies are clear, light, and transparent ; and his female figures, which are generally represented naked, are equally elegant and beautiful. The Italians were highly delighted with his works, and some of the cardinals of Rome, of the finest taste, frequently attended his painting room, to observe his extraordinary and happy manner of working. Upon his leaving Rome, the Grand Duke of Florence paid him great honors,

and he was received with distinction in every city through which he passed. It is recorded to the honor of Rubens, that after paying him a friendly visit, and expressing the greatest pleasure from examining the works of Poelenburg, he purchased and bespoke several of his pictures for his own cabinet; this noble conduct at once gave the stamp of currency to the works of the latter, and advanced his reputation and his fortune together. Our refined and munificent Charles the First invited him to his court, and nobly recompensed him for his labours, but he vainly endeavoured, by his princely encouragement, to prevail upon him to settle in England; the indelible love of his country prevailed over every other consideration, and he returned to his native country, where he lived in affluence and esteem, where he continued to paint to the *last day* of his life, which was in the year 1660, at the great age of seventy-four.

Utrecht seems to have the fairest pretensions to have given birth to Anthony Waterloo, before slightly mentioned; an honour disputed with much ardor of rivalry by Amsterdam and other cities. The landscapes of this admirable artist are in the highest estimation, and are the closest copies of nature, without the aid of meretricious decoration. His favourite subjects were woody scenes, embellished with water, and figures and cattle added by Weenix and other artists: the variety in the verdure of his trees and grounds, the very tint of which illustrates the hour of the day and the season of the year in which they were taken, and the wonderful transparence of his water, remain unrivalled. Although the works of this great artist produced high prices, he expired in great penury in the the hospital of St. Job, near Utrecht. John Glauber, called Polidore, another eminent artist, was born here in 1656; he was a disciple of the admirable Berghem, but a passion for travelling induced him to quit his master, to contemplate the sublime objects of nature in Italy. In his way he remained at Paris one year with Picart, a flower painter, and at Lyons two years with Adrian Vander Cabel, with whom he intended to have staid longer, had he not been attracted by a great number of people who were going to the jubilee, to proceed direct to Rome, where he continued for two years, indefatigably pursuing the means of improving himself in his art, and from thence he went to Venice. Upon his return to Holland he settled at Amsterdam, where he lodged with Gerard Lairesse, in whose

house an academy of arts was established. These distinguished artists were united together by the same passion for their art, and the same elevation of mind, improved by their having travelled through the same countries: by this friendship the beautiful landscapes of Glauber became enriched by the graceful figures of Lairese. Glauber ranks amongst the finest landscape painters of the Flemish school. The most frequent subjects of his pencil he derived from the neighbourhood of Rome and the Alps, and his style resembles that of Gaspar Poussin; his colouring is warm and true, his invention very luxuriant; and although his pictures are exquisitely finished, they appear as if they had been produced with perfect facility; his touch is so peculiarly just and natural, that every distinct species of trees or plants may be distinguished by the characteristic exactness of the leafing. The two brothers, John and Andrew Bott, were born in this city in the beginning of the sixteenth century; the former a landscape painter, and the latter a painter of figures; they both resided many years in Italy. John made Claude Lorraine his model, whose style he imitated with uncommon success, as did Andrew that of Bomboccio. They were much attached to each other, and painted in conjunction: their united efforts seem to be the happy result of one masterly hand. Andrew was unfortunately drowned in one of the canals of Venice whilst with his brother, in 1650, who returned to Utrecht overwhelmed with grief, which he consoled by an unabated pursuit of the art he adored. The works of John are of inestimable value, and eagerly sought after by connoisseurs.

Gallantry forbids my passing over the name of Anna Maria Schurman, born here in 1607: she was profoundly versed in languages, displayed great skill and taste in painting, as well as in every other branch of the graphic and elegant arts: she was honoured with a visit from Christina, queen of Sweden, who pronounced the most enthusiastic encomiums on her elegant attainments. This celebrated woman died at the age of seventy-one. There are other artists who do honour to this their native city, but I have mentioned those of the first order, in number and reputation perfectly sufficient to establish the pretensions of Utrecht to high rank in the roll of renowned cities. I quitted this beautiful place, the prosperity of which has suffered much by the war with England, about four o'clock on a beautiful autumnal morning, and proceeded to Arnheim,

which and Nimeguen are the capital cities of Guelderland. This beautiful and valuable province contains twenty-two considerable towns, and upwards of three hundred villages. The Menopii, Gugerni, Usipetes, and Secanabri, mentioned in Cæsar's Commentaries, are supposed to have been its ancient inhabitants. Guelderland, remarkable for the salubrity of its climate and the fertility of its soil, abounds with the most romantic variety of scenery, mountain and valley, and is well stocked in every direction with fine cattle, and abounds with game. All the way to Arnheim the eye was gladdened by some of the most delightful objects descriptive of the amenity of nature. In this country I generally travelled in post-chaises, or, as it is called, extra-post; but perhaps, as the following information respecting the route from Amsterdam to Cologne may be serviceable to those who travel by the diligence or post-waggon, I shall insert it:

From Amsterdam to Utrecht by water	—	—	eight hours.
to Arnheim by the diligence, which sets off every day from Utrecht	—	—	one long day.
to Wesel ditto every Monday and Thursday	—	—	one very long day.
to Dusseldorf	—	—	one day.
to Cologne	—	—	one day.

We were sercuated all the way by nightingales, which are very numerous in every part of this province. Arnheim or Arnhem, is a very large and elegant city, partly watered by a branch of the Naas, over which are several drawbridges, from which there are many agreeable views. The houses are in general well-built, and, what is remarkable for a Dutch town, very few of them out of the perpendicular. The entrances, called St. Jan's Poort and Sabel's Poort, are picturesque. St John's church is a vast edifice of brick, with two spires, and a set of carillons; but with exception to its magnitude, there is little in or about it worthy of observation; the same may be said of the church of St. Nicholas. The church near Walburges Plain, the name of which I have forgotten, is a prodigious massy pile; and beheld from the surrounding scenery has a very noble effect. The market-place is capacious, and abundantly supplied with every species of provision, which are here much cheaper than in the other parts of Holland. The streets of this city are enlivened by several handsome equipages, and throughout the place there is a considerable

appearance of refinement and opulence. Here the Dutch language begins to lose itself in the German, a circumstance made manifest by a friend of mine, a native of Germany, who accompanied me on my return from that country to Holland, finding considerable difficulty in understanding the lower people in Arnheim. The inns here are in general very good. This city gave birth to the celebrated David Beck in 1621, a disciple of Vandyke, from whom he imbibed that exquisite style of colouring and pencilling which belong to his school. King Charles the First was so astonished at the freedom of his hand, he one day said, "I do believe, Beck, you could paint if you were riding post." The person of this artist was remarkably handsome, and his manners perfectly well bred: these qualities, accompanied with such talents in his art, recommended him to the attention of Queen Christina of Sweden, who appointed him her portrait-painter and chamberlain; and under her patronage he painted most of the illustrious persons of Europe. The following singular event occurred to this artist in his tour through Germany. At an inn where he stopped for the night, he was suddenly taken violently ill, to appearance expired, and was accordingly laid out for a corpse. His valets, who were much attached to him, sat by his bed-side, deeply lamenting the loss of so good a master; and, like the Irish upon such occasions, sought consolation in the bottle, which was put about very briskly; at length one of them, who was greatly intoxicated, said to his companions, "Come, my friends, our poor dear master used to be very fond of his glass when alive, suppose, out of gratitude, we give him a bumper now he is dead." To this jovial recommendation the rest of the servants consented. They accordingly raised his head, and the mover of the measure poured some of the wine into his mouth; this produced the immediate effect of forcing him to open his eyes, which, from the excessive drunkenness of the fellow, did not surprise him, and he continued pouring the wine down his master's throat until the glass was emptied, which at last completely recovered him; and by this accidental circumstance he was saved from a premature interment. However, he escaped death in this violent shape only to meet it in another, for it was generally suspected that his final fate was effected by poison administered by some miscreant, hired for the purpose by Queen Christina, at the Hague, in revenge for his having quitted her to visit his friends in Holland, with a determination never more to

visit Sweden.* The works of this master are justly held in very high estimation, and he became the favoured object of the most unbounded marks of distinction and honour.

With an exception to large churches, and handsome streets, and some pretty and well dressed women, there is little, at least as far as I could learn, to detain a traveller in this city, so I set off for Wesel with all due expedition, impatient to move upon the bosom of the Rhine.

On the road, which was agreeably diversified, we met several milk-maids, bearing their milk home in large copper vessels, shining very bright, slung to their backs, which had a picturesque effect. About four miles from Arnheim, just after passing a bridge of boats at Sevenhal, I entered a small town, at the end of which is the first barrier of the territories of Prince Joachim, grand admiral of France and duke of Berg, a piece of history which I first learned from a new ordinance or law, in German and French, to regulate the safe delivery of letters, pasted upon one of the gates of the town. In this duchy most of the peasants are catholics, who make a public avowal of their faith by painting a large white cross on the outside of their houses. On the left, within a short distance of the frontier of Prince Joachim's territory, upon the summit of a mountain, are two large religious houses for monks and nuns. A little indisposition, in addition to the heat of a very sultry day, prevented me from quitting the carriage to visit the holy fraternity and sisterhood, of whom, I was informed, very few members remain, and those far advanced in life. The revolution of France, and the progress of the French arms, have at least the merit of having prevented the immolation of many a lovely young creature, possessed of every personal and mental charm to gladden this chequered life of ours.

The approach to these convents from the town is by a pleasant avenue of trees, their situation must be very agreeable, from the extensive prospect which they command. On our right the spires of the city of Cleves, on the French side of the Rhine appeared, and produced a very pleasing effect. Upon turning the base of the hill on which the monastic mansions stand, we entered upon a deep sandy road, and a very flat and uninteresting country, in which very few objects occurred to afford any gratification to the eye. The Rhine occasionally appeared, but not to much advantage: the majesty of its breadth is obscured by the great number of islands upon it in this stage of its descent.

Flink, whom I have mentioned in describing the Stadt-house at Amsterdam, was born at Cleves in 1616. This able artist was destined, like our celebrated Garrick, for the bureau of a compting-house; but his genius and passion for painting overcame all the impediments placed in their way by parental authority, and the persuasion of friends, and he renounced the prospect of accumulating immense riches by commerce, for the glory of the art. He made great progress under Rembrant, whose style he imitated to perfection; he soon rose to distinguished reputation, and was employed to paint the portraits of princes and illustrious personages of the times in which he flourished; he died very young and much regretted.

After a tedious and unpleasant journey I reached Wesel, a large, gloomy, and very strongly fortified town; as the gates had been closed at eight o'clock, and it struck eleven as I passed the last draw-bridge, it was with some difficulty and delay that I was admitted. Only persons travelling extra-post, and in the post-waggon, or diligence, are admitted after the gates are once shut. This place presents a disgusting contrast to the neatness and cleanliness of the towns in Holland. The moment I passed the gates, a most offensive *mauvais odeur* assailed my nose on all sides. There is only one tolerable inn in the whole place, and that is generally very crowded. If the traveller cannot be accommodated there, he will be marched, as I was, to a pig-stye, or a house of ease to the former, where he may meditate at leisure on the sapient poetical advice of Shakespeare.

Cease to lament for what thou canst not help.

Here, according to a regulation which prevails in every part of Germany, I was annoyed by being presented with a printed paper, containing several columns, titled as follow:

- | | | |
|--------------------|-----|------------------------------|
| <i>Nahme</i> | - - | Your name. |
| <i>Karukter</i> | - - | Profession. |
| <i>Wohnort</i> | - - | Residence. |
| <i>Kommendoon</i> | | Where came you from. |
| <i>Gehendnack</i> | - | Where going to. |
| <i>Auffenthalt</i> | - | How long you intend to stay. |

All of which I duly answered in writing, except the last interrogatory but one, namely, "where are you going?" under which I peevishly wrote "to sleep," consolidated

into one word, in large close letters. To an Englishman unaccustomed to such examinations, which after all are little more than formal, although every innkeeper by law is obliged to make such report of every traveller on his arrival, they are very liable to excite an inverted blessing upon the heads of those who trouble him in this manner.

Wesel is an abominable dunghill, very strongly fortified. In the course of my perambulations through the town, the objects which I met with were infinitely more offensive to the sense of smelling than gratifying to that of seeing, and doubly disgusting from the contrast of exquisite cleanliness which the country I had just quitted, exhibited. This part of Westphalia is very flat, barren, sandy, and dreary, presenting little more than thin patches of buck wheat. The roads are very heavy, and with an exception to an oratory in a little grove, and three wooden effigies as large as life, representing the crucifixion, not one enlivening or interesting object presented itself. I mention the following travelling anecdote by way of caution to my reader should he select this route. At Dinslaken, one of the post towns between Wesel and Dusseldorf, the post-master told me that two horses would not be sufficient in such roads for the carriage, and declared his determination, that, ~~unless~~ I took three, I should have none. If I had submitted to this imposition here, I must have done so throughout; I was therefore obliged to compound with this extortioner in office, by paying half of a third horse, which sum went into his pocket, and pursued my route with a couple, who conducted me in very good style to the next post town. In every part of Germany the post-masters are appointed by, and are under the controul of the reigning prince of Tülin and Saxis, the hereditary director and post-master general of the roads in that part of Europe. My driver stopped to give his horses some wretched hard bread, used by the peasantry in Westphalia, composed of straw and oats, called *bon-pournikel* from the following circumstance. Many years since a Frenchman, travelling in this country, called for bread for himself, and upon this sort being presented, he exclaimed, *C'est bon pour Nickel* (the name of his horse); upon which the old woman who had brought it in ran about the village in a great pet, relating the story.

As I was proceeding by moon-light, a German gentleman who had travelled some way with me was observing, that throughout Westphalia a robbery upon the highway had not been known for many years, and that a traveller

was safe in the night as in the day; and at the moment when he had just finished an animated eulogium upon the invincible honesty of the people, I happened to observe the shadow of a man behind the cabriolet, the head of which was raised; apparently very busy in endeavouring to cut our trunks, which, upon our jumping out, proved to be the case; the fellow was much alarmed by our appearance, fell upon his knees, and declared that he belonged to Dusseldorf, and poverty had prompted him to quit that city, and try his fortune on the highway. Nothing could exceed the indignation of the German the moment he knew our prisoner was a Westphalian; had he fortunately announced himself as a native of any other country, I believe he would have rather relieved the fellow's distress, than pierced his ears, and perhaps his heart, with the bitter reproaches he heaped upon him: however, as the affair furnished me with a hearty laugh, I prevailed upon my companion to forgive the poor wretch, whose face and clothes indicated extreme wretchedness, and permit him to depart in peace; and we proceeded without further interruption to within a short stage of Dusseldorf, where we slept.

The appearance of Dusseldorf at a little distance is very handsome, particularly from the *grand ducal road*, as it was styled. Upon my driving up to the principal inn, the maitre d'hôtel with great pomp came out, and informed me in bad French that his house was then nearly full; that the Grand Duchess from Paris was expected every day; that his bed-rooms would be wanted for those belonging to the court who could not be accommodated at the palace, and finally, that he could not receive me. As I immediately guessed his object, I told him that I intended to stay some days at Dusseldorf. "Oh, very well," said he, archly adding, "you are an Englishman I perceive." "No, Sir, an American." "Oh," replied he, "never mind, it is the same thing: walk in, Sir, and we will see what we can do for you." This inn, the only eminent one in the town, is spacious and handsome, and the table d'hôte excellently supplied with a great variety of dishes, both at dinner and supper, perfectly well dressed. During my stay I was known by no other name than that of Monsieur Anglois, an appellation not very gratifying to me, upon reflecting that I was a sojourner in the territory of a brother-in-law of Napoleon, who, knowing that he is no favourite with the English, dislikes England and every thing that can remind him of it, to such a degree, that an English gentleman and

lady, whom I knew, who had been detained prisoners of war in France, but afterwards liberated, upon their route from Verdun to Holland to embark for their country, were one day overtaken by a *gen-d'arme* dispatched express from the last post town, to order them to turn out of the high road on which they were travelling, and to take another route which he pointed out, by which they were compelled to make a deviation of seventy miles. In consequence of the French Emperor being expected to pass that road in the course of the day, this messenger had been dispatched to overtake and order them out of the way as fast as possible.

DUSSELDORF.

Dusseldorf, so called from the little river Dussel that waters its southern side, and Dhorpf which means village, is now the capital of the imperial duchy of Berg, under the new dynasty of the Buonaparte family; it formerly belonged to the German empire, and afterwards to the elector Palatine, who at one period made it his residence; this city owed the prosperity which it long enjoyed, to the sagacity and liberality of the elector Joseph William, who enlarged it in 1709, nobly offering its freedom, and an exemption from all taxes for thirty years, to every one who would build a house within its walls, and took every judicious advantage of its local adaptation to trade, and established universal toleration in religion; the benefit of measures so worthy of a Christian and the ruler was speedily felt, and Dusseldorf, from a petty village soon became a flourishing city, and contained a population of 18,000 inhabitants.

Few towns have suffered more from the calamities of war than this: its streets, squares, and houses, denote its former consequence; it now resembles a mausoleum half in ruins. Early in the year 1795, the army of the Sambre and the Meuse suddenly crossed the Rhine, and summoned the town to surrender, which it refused to do; in consequence of which the French bombarded it, and set fire to one of its most beautiful churches, which was burnt to the ground; and the city palace, which contained many noble apartments, nearly experienced the same fate; naked walls, blackened with smoke, are all that remain of this splendid pile, except that part which contained the celebrated gallery of paintings, which were removed to Munich under a Prussian escort. The French at length

took the city by assault, the Austrians who were garrisoned within having previously retired. I was surprised to find that the French had spared the statue erected as a mark of public gratitude, in the center of the court of the gallery, to the honor of the elector John William, who was its founder. He commenced it in the year 1710; but dying in 1716, the completion of this princely and public-spirited design was totally neglected by his successor Charles Phillip, who employed part of his treasure, and the whole of his taste, in improving the city of Mannheim. Charles Theodore, his successor, finished this institution: established an academy, of drawing and painting in Dusseldorf, and also erected a public gallery of paintings at Mannheim, which were open to every one, and every artist had permission to study and copy them.

The ruins of the palace have a melancholy appearance from the water, on which I made a sketch of the city, when I saw for the first time one of the Reynish flying bridges, the description of which I shall reserve for a few pages following, as I did not go on board of it. That famous gallery, which attracted men of taste from distant parts of Europe, occupied that part of the palace which stood close to the junction of the Rhine and the Dussel, and was divided into five very large and spacious apartments, one of which was wholly devoted to one picture of General Douw, esteemed inestimable, and one of the finest he ever painted; the subject of it is uncommonly complicated, yet every figure in it is so exquisitely finished, that it will bear the closest inspection. Descriptions of paintings are seldom very interesting; but the subject of this renowned picture deserves to be recorded. It represented a quack-doctor at a fair, upon a stage covered with a Turkey carpet, set out with vials and gallipots, a shaving bason, with an umbrella, and a monkey: the doctor, in the most whimsical dress, is haranguing with uncommon humour and cunning in his countenance, the motley crowd below; amongst whom, a gardner wheeling a barrow filled with vegetables, a countryman with a hare hanging over his shoulders, a woman with a child at the breast, baking little cakes for the fair; another woman listening with ardent credulity, whilst a sharper is picking her pocket, are penciled in a wonderful manner. Douw has represented himself looking out of the window of a public house, and drawing the several objects. The second chamber contained the productions of the Italian school;

a third those of the Flemish; a fourth was dedicated to Vanderwerff; and the fifth to Rubens.

The only part of the city which presented any appearance of animation was the market-place, which abounded with fine vegetables, and exquisite fruit. The market-women, and the female peasants, wear a large handkerchief depending from the top of the head, which has a picturesque effect. Fruit is so abundant that for the value of 5d. I purchased a pound and a half of the most luscious grapes. In this square, part of the scaffolding used for illuminating the hôtel de ville, on the grand duke making his first entry into the city, remained. About a mile from the town is a country palace of the prince, separated from a garden, in front of it, by the great road to Cologne. The palace is large and very elegantly furnished; the gardens are spacious, well kept, and open to well-dressed persons. The view of the city from these walks is very beautiful. The ramparts which are levelling as fast as the pick-axe and spade can lay them low, in many places present a very agreeable walk.

RELIGIONS IN HOLLAND.

All religions are tolerated, but that most followed is Roman Catholic, for the celebration of which there are three large churches; before one of them, raised and railed off, is a group as large as life, in wood, painted white, representing our Saviour crucified between the two thieves, and Mary Magdalen, kneeling; several persons were praying very devoutly before those images. The dead were wisely buried out of the city. In one of the streets at the extremity of the town, is a prodigious pile of buildings for barracks. The soldiers of the grand duke, principally Germans, and a few French, had a very military appearance. The manufactures are at a pause; the population is reduced to about eight thousand persons, the greater portion of whom are in very abject circumstances. How different must this place be to its former period of prosperity, before the last war, when a gay old Prussian officer who resided there, told me, that it was furnished with clubs, cassons, and balls, when every family of common respectability could regale its friends with the choicest Johannis-Berg Hockein-Rheidesheim wine. The princes of Germany differ very much from those of our own country, in the plain unostentatious manner in which they move about. One morning, when I was crossing the court

of my inn to go to breakfast, I saw a little boy fencing with a stick with one of the ostlers; as I was pleased with his appearance, I asked him if was the son of the maître d'hôtel, to which he replied, "No Sir, I am the hereditary prince Von Salm." The prince and princess, his father and aunt, were at the same hotel, having come to Dusseldorf to pay their respects to Prince Murat. The grand ducal court was, as I was informed, kept up with considerable splendor, in the circle of which the grand duchess, one of the sisters of Napoleon, had not yet made her appearance. It was generally believed, notwithstanding the use my worthy host made of her approaching entry, that no great attachment existed between the grand ducal pair; and that the gaiety of the imperial court of Paris possessed more prevailing attractions to the grand duchess than her own. Murat, Grand Duke of Berg, is an instance of the astonishing results of great ability and good fortune. His origin was so very obscure, that very little of it is known. The following anecdote will, however, throw some light upon the extreme humility of his early condition in life. After his elevation to the rank of a prince of the French empire, he halted, in the close of the last war, at a small town in Germany, where he staid two or three days, and on finding the bread prepared for his table of an inferior kind, he dispatched one of his suite to order the best baker in the town to attend him, to receive from him his directions respecting this precious article of life. A baker who had been long established in the place was selected for this purpose, and upon the aide-de-camp ordering him to wait upon the prince immediately, he observed, to the no little surprise of the officer—"It is useless my going, the prince will never employ me." Upon being pressed to state his reasons, he declined assigning any; but as the order of the messenger was peremptory, he followed him, and was immediately admitted to Murat, with whom he staid about ten minutes, and then retired. As he quitted the house in which the prince lodged, he observed to his aide-de-camp, "I told you the prince would not employ me—he has dismissed me with this," displaying a purse of ducats. Upon being again pressed to explain the reason of this singular conduct, he replied, "The Prince Murat, when a boy was apprenticed to a biscuit baker in the south of France, at the time I was a journeyman to him, and I have often threshed him for being idle—the moment he saw me just now, he instantly

remembered me, and without entering into the subject of our antient acquaintance, or of that which led me to his presence, he hastily took his purse of ducats from the drawer of the table where he sat, gave it to me, and ordered me to retire."

The heroic courage which Murat displayed in the campaign of 1797, when in conjunction with Duphaz, at the head of their respective divisions, they plunged into the deep and impetuous stream of Tagliamento, gained the opposite banks, and drove the Austrians, headed by their able and amiable general, the Archduke Charles, as far as the confines of Carnithia and Carniola. The numerous battles in which he distinguished himself in Egypt, and afterwards at Montebello, and Marengo, where, at the head of his cavalry, he successfully supported the brilliant and eventful movement of D'essaix, will rank him in the page of history amongst the most illustrious of those consummate generals, which the fermentation of the French revolution has elevated from the depths of obscurity. In Egypt he was high in the confidence of Napoleon, whom he accompanied with Lasnes, Andreossi, Bessieres, and several members of the Egyptian Institute, when Buonaparte effected his memorable passage from his army to Trejus, in August 1799. Upon the death of General Le Clerc, who was united to a sister of Napoleon, Murat paid his addresses to, and espoused his widow, with the entire approbation of his great comrade in arms, by whom he was, upon his elevation to the imperial throne, created a prince of the empire, and at length raised to the rank of a sovereign. He is reserved and unostentatious, and is seldom visible to his people. Some of the Westphalians, who are attached to the antient order of things, have a joke amongst themselves at the expense of their new prince, whose christian name being *Joachim*, they pronounce it with an accompanying laugh, *Jachum*, which means "*drive him away*;" and there is very little difference in the pronunciation.

MURAT'S PALACE.

As Dusseldorf had infinitely less charms for me than it had for the Grand Duchess, I was well pleased to quit it, as she was disinclined to enter it: so mounting my cabriolet, for which I was obliged to make the best bargain I could with the postmaster, I set off for Cologne, the road to which is far more pleasant than any other part of the

duchy which I saw, though the whole is very flat. About six miles from Dusseldorf, I passed a very beautiful country palace of the Grand Duke, called Benrad, composed of a range of semicircular buildings detached from each other, standing upon the summit of a gentle slope, at the bottom of which is a large circular piece of water. The Grand Duke makes this place his principal residence, and very seldom goes to that in the neighbourhood of the city more than twice in the week, to give audience and transact affairs of state, which, as the government is entirely despotic, are managed with ease and dispatch. The appearance of the body-guard at the entrance announced that the prince was at this place when I passed it: the grounds and gardens, seen from the road, appear to be tastefully arranged. Although the road is sandy, yet it is infinitely preferable, I was informed, to crossing the ferry at Dusseldorf, and proceeding by that rout to Cologne. After passing Muhlheim, a very neat town, the suburbs of which adorned with some handsome country houses, I entered, about a mile further, the village of Dentz, and beheld the venerable city of Cologne, separated by the Rhine, immediately before me. At one end of the village is a large convent of Carmelites, and on the day of my arrival a religious fete was celebrating, at which nearly all the population of the place and neighbourhood assisted, and the streets were enlivened with little booths, in which crosses and ornaments of gold lace and beads were tastefully exposed to the eye.

The bell of the flying bridge summoned me on board, and in about five minutes I found myself in the French empire, attended by French custom-house officers, in green ~~costume~~ ^{uniform}, who conducted me to the Douane. This ferry cannot fail to impress the mind and excite the curiosity of a stranger: it is formed of a broad platform resting upon two large barges, like our coal lighters; from this platform a vast wooden frame in the shape of a gallows is erected, which is fastened to the former by strong chains of iron, whilst from the centre cross piece, a chain of the same ~~metal~~ ^{material} of great length, is fixed to the top of an upright pole standing in each of a long line of boats, the remotest of which is at anchor; by this machinery a powerful pressure is obtained; to each of the barges a rudder is affixed, which, upon being placed in an oblique direction, produces lateral motion upon the stream, which acts as a force from above; so that by changing the rudder to the

right or left, the bridge is forced on one side or the other of the river, with equal certainty and celerity. Fifteen hundred persons can with perfect ease be transported at the same time upon these bridges, and carriages and horses are driven upon them without any stoppage, from the banks to which they are lashed, until put in motion. The Germans call this machine the *Fliegende Schiffs-Brücke*, or the volant bridge of boats; the Dutch *geer burg*, or the bridge in shackles, in allusion to its chains; and the French le pont volant, or the flying bridge.

The search made by the custom-house officers amongst my fellow-passengers, most of whom had only just crossed and re-crossed the river, was very rigorous; the females were marched up to a small house, where, as I discovered by accidentally opening the door, and offending as the elders did when they took a lawless peep at Susanna, to the no small delight of those who were lounging without, and of embarrassment to those within, they underwent a private examination by two matrons, appointed for the purpose.

At this place I expected some difficulty; but upon my declaring myself an American, and shewing my pass; and just opening my trunk, the officers with great politeness, called a porter to carry my luggage into the city, and pulling off their hats, recommended me to *La Cour Imperiale*, one of the best hotels, where I arrived just in time to sit down to a splendid table d'hôte, at which several beautiful and well-dressed ladies, German noblemen, and French officers, were present.

CATHEDRAL OF COLOGNE.

This city was formerly celebrated for the number of its devotees and prostitutes, which the French police has very much reduced. The first object I visited, was the cathedral, which, from the water appears like a stupendous fragment, that had withstood the shock of war, or some convulsion of nature, by which the rest of the pile had been prostrated: but upon enquiry, I found that it owed its mutilated appearance to no such event, but to the obstacles which have occurred for ages in completing it, according to its original design. In the year 1248, Conrad, the elector and bishop of Hocksteden, in the pride and exultation of holy enthusiasm, resolved to erect a temple to God, which should have no equal in size and magnificence; it was intended that the two western towers should

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have been five hundred feet in elevation, and the nave or body of the church in proportion, and every external stone which the eye could perceive, decorated with the most exquisite ornament of pure gothic architecture. The successors of the prince bishop, who resembled in the splendor of his spirit the emperor who so elegantly wished to leave the town *stone*, which he had found *brick*, continued the building for two centuries and a half; but owing to their resources being insufficient, they were obliged to leave it in a very imperfect state, but capable of being used for religious purposes. There is no building of the kind to compare with it, but the Duomo at Milan. One of the western towers, which I ascended, is about two hundred and fifty feet high, from which there is a fine view of the city, the Rhine, and the surrounding country; the other tower is not above forty feet high. The roof of the greater part of the body of the church is temporary and low; but so spacious is the area which it covers, that one hundred massy pillars, arranged in four rows, present a light and airy appearance upon it. My guide, who was a good humoured intelligent man, with many significant shrugs of regret, informed me, that the moveable decorations of the church and altar were once worthy of a stranger's attention; but that the generals of the French armies, during the revolution, had pillaged this holy sanctuary of its richest ornaments; however, the grand altar in the choir was not sufficiently portable for their rapacious hands, and remains to shew the magnificent scale upon which every part of the cathedral was originally designed. This altar is formed of one solid block, of the finest sable marble, sixteen feet long and eight broad, placed upon the summit of a flight of steps.

The treasury, or as it is called the golden chamber, contains the robes of the priests, which are very magnificent, arranged with great care and order in several ward-robres; and busts of saints and holy utensils in gold and silver, many of which were once encrusted with the most precious stones, but which had been removed by the French and their places supplied by paste. Amongst the still costly contents of this chamber, I noticed a small tomb of a priest in solid gold and silver, and a skull of St. Peter, of the same precious metal. In this room were several ladies, who appeared to be under the strongest influence of Roman Catholic enthusiasm; not a robe or a relic was exhibited, which did not draw forth some fervidly pious exclamation.

I was shewn, as a marvellous curiosity, the mausoleum of the Three Kings, behind the grand altar towards the east, where the bodies of these personages, and those of the martyrs, Gregory and Spoleto, and Felix Nabor, repose. The bones of the three kings are said to have been brought away by the emperor Frederick Barbarossa, when he sacked Milan, and presented to the archbishop Bernauld of Dasselde, who attended him in his military exploits, and who deposited them near Bonn, from whence they were transferred to the spot where their mausoleum was afterwards erected, before the building of the present cathedral in the year 1170; the bones of these personages, of course, performed all sorts of prodigies; the blind by touching them, became astronomers, and the lame dancing-masters. This tomb, before the last war, was uncommonly rich and magnificent; but the French, who have displayed no great respect for living kings, could not be expected to pay much to three dead ones, and accordingly they have stripped their shrine of most of the jewellery, and precious ornaments. The sacrifice committed upon the three holy kings, who were transported so far from their native country, reminds me of an anecdote, in which the playful wit of Mr. Hastings, formerly Governor-general of India, was eminently displayed. An antiquary having collected in India a considerable number of Lincloo gods, had them well packed up for the purpose of being sent to England, and on the top of the case wrote in large characters "*Gods—please to keep these uppermost;*" the Governor-general calling one morning on the collector, observed the package in his library, and remarking the superscription, said, "your direction is a wise one, for when you transport gods into a foreign country, it is ten to one but that they are *overturned.*"

Every street reminds the stranger of the former prevalence of the priesthood. Before the war, the clergy in this city were divided into eleven chapters, nineteen parishes, nineteen convents for men, thirty-nine convents for women, besides forty-nine chapels, institutions, which supported between two and three thousand persons in useless voluptuousness and sloth.

As the other churches have been stripped of their finery, and were not embellished by any striking work of the statuary, I merely took a cursory view of their exterior; the principal are the Jesuits' church, the collegiate church of St. Gerion, that of the Maccabees, and the abbey church

of St. Pantaleon: all these, and a number of other sacred buildings useless to name, abounded with saints and shrines incrustated with a profusion of jewellery, and all the mummery and mockery of cunning and credulity. With respect to the chapel of St. Ursula, a whimsical circumstance occurred some years since: in this depository, for a great length of time, have reposed the bones of the immaculate St. Ursula, and eleven thousand virgins her companions, who came from England in a little boat in the year 640, to convert the Huns who had taken possession of this city, who instead of being moved by their sweet eloquence and cherub-like looks, put an end to their argument, by putting them all to death. Some doubt arose many years since whether any country could have spared so many virgins, and a surgeon, somewhat of a wag, upon examining the consecrated bones, declared that most of them were the bones of full grown female mastiffs, for which discovery he was expelled the city. The convents and monasteries are converted into garrisons for the French troops quartered in the city. It is in contemplation to pull down about two-thirds of the churches.

On account of its numerous religious houses Cologne was called the Holy City. Bigotry, beggary, and ignorance disfigured the place in spite of its once flourishing trade and university. When the French seized upon this city, in 1794, they soon removed the rubbish of ages; three-fourths of the priests had the choice of retiring or entering the army, and when withdrawn, the weak minds over which they had exercised sovereign influence, recovered their tone, and live to hail the hour of their delivery from fanatical bondage, and the sturdy beggars were formed into conscripts.

This city is celebrated for having given birth to Agrippina, the mother of Nero, but it derived more lustre from the immortal Rubens having been born here in 1640: the house in which he resided is still preserved and exhibited with great pride to strangers. This illustrious man was no less a scholar than a painter, and hence his allegorical works are more purely classical than those of any other master; of this the gallery of the Luxemburg and the banqueting-room at Whitehall bear ample testimony. Whilst he painted he used to recite the poems of Homer and Virgil, which he knew by heart, by which he infused the divine spirit of poetry into the productions of his pencil. After having studied a few years in Italy, his renown as an artist

spread through Europe, whilst his learning, amenity of manners, and elegant accomplishments, and amiable mind, secured to him the esteem and regard of all whom he approached. He was particularly cherished by the kings of England, Spain, and other monarchs: he was even employed upon a very delicate occasion to communicate proposals from the cabinet of Spain to that of London, and Charles I. was so delighted with his various talents, that he conferred upon him the honor of knighthood. The number of his paintings is prodigious. Sir Joshua Reynolds said that the most grand, as well as the most perfect piece of composition in the world, was that of Rubens's picture of the Fall of the Damned, formerly in the gallery of Düsseldorf; that it combined such varied heterogeneous and horrible subject, in such a wonderful manner, that he scarcely knew which most to admire, the invention or the composition of the master. The last of Rubens's paintings was the crucifixion of St. Peter, with his head downward, which he presented to St. Peter's church in this city one day after taking a copy of the register of his birth from its archives: the tasteless and mercenary heads of the church received this invaluable present with little expressions of gratitude, and were disappointed that the donor had not given them money in lieu: when Rubens heard of their dissatisfaction, he offered them 28,000 crowns for the picture, which, merely in consequence of the offer, they considered to be worth infinitely more, and therefore refused to sell him the work of his own hands, and it was preserved with great veneration in the church, where it continued till Cologne became one of the cities of the French empire. Rubens, to the powers and graces before ascribed to him, united the virtue of a christian: from motives of piety and benevolence he adorned many churches and convents with his matchless productions; which, as if the hallowed purpose to which they were devoted had inspired him, whilst he painted, were generally the most masterly efforts of his pencil.

Thomas à Kempis, so celebrated for his extraordinary piety, was born in the neighbourhood of this city in 1380. The last edition of his works is that of Cologne 1660, 3 vols. folio; his most celebrated work was entitled "*De Imitatione Christi*;" which on account of its great piety and merit, has been translated into almost every living language. This work has been attempted to be ascribed to an abbot of the name of Gerson, of the order

of St. Benedict, which for many years produced severe controversies between the canons of St. Augustine, to which Thomas à Kempis belonged, and the Benedictines.

The celebrated William Caxton opened his printing office here in 1471, and printed the work of Le Fevre, which was three years afterwards published in London, where he had the honor of being the first to introduce the invaluable art of printing. Adam Schule, the mathematician, who died at Pekin, was a calendar here. Vondel, the Dutch Virgil was born here, as was the wonderful Maria Schurman, who was well versed in twelve languages and wrote five classically, besides excelling in every accomplishment then known. Excess of genius and learning made her melancholy mad, and she died from an inordinate debauch in eating spiders.

The Town House is a very antient edifice, and contains the only specimen of Grecian architecture in the city. There were three ecclesiastical electorates in Germany, viz. Cologne, Mayence, and Treves, which have been abolished by Napoleon. The revenues of the elector of Cologne amounted to upwards of two hundred thousand pounds. Cologne must have been declining for some centuries, for in the year 1200, it was capable of furnishing thirty thousand men for the field, a number which its present population is said not to exceed. The whole of the trade of this town was extensive before the last war, and at one period, in spite of its bigoted rulers, it was one of the richest and most flourishing cities in Germany: its traders carry outward annually large quantities of salted provisions from Westphalia, iron from the forges of Nassau, wood from the Upper Rhine and the Neckar, wine, hemp, tobacco, brass, tuff stone, tobacco-pipe clay, millet, gins, dried fruits, potash, copper, ribbands, stockings, and lace: and they purchase of the Dutch paper, oil, cottons, groceries, spices, medicinal drugs, also for dying, and English lead and tin.

The policy of the French government since it has assumed a settled form, has very much directed its attention to the depressed state of the manufactures of Cologne, which formerly employed eleven thousand children, and under its auspices there are several fabrics in a very flourishing condition, particularly those for manufacturing stuffs and ribbands, and a great deal of iron is now wrought in this city. The university is at a very low ebb, in consequence of so many young men having embraced the pro-

cession of arms. This university was once very celebrated and was the most ancient in Germany, having been founded in 1380. Pope Urban the Sixth paid it the following compliment, in allusion to its having given birth to the college of Louvaine:

Matre pulchra filia pulchrior.

This maternal university was divided into theology, law, medicine, and philosophy; but has not the celebrity of having sent into the world many enlightened men.

In the department of Cologne the vineyards began first to appear. The vines in the garden grounds of the city are said to have yielded seven hundred and fourteen thousand gallons of wine. The vines are not attempted to be cultivated higher north.

During my stay at Cologne I visited the French parades every morning and evening. As the parades in France used to be confined to the morning, it was natural to conjecture that some new and great political storm was collecting, for which the French emperor was preparing by redoubled activity and energy. At these parades the conscripts, after having undergone a brief drilling, were incorporated with the veteran troops: to wheel, to form close column, to load, fire, and charge with the bayonet, seemed to be all the motions which were attended to. Instead of forming the line, as with us, with exquisite nicety, but little attention was paid to it, for a more slovenly one I never witnessed; but by thus simplifying the manœuvres, and confining the attention of the soldier only to the useful part of his duty, a conscript is qualified to march to the field of battle with the rest of the troops in five days. But little attention was paid to the dress of these men, who were uniform only in a short blue coat with white or red facings, and appeared to be left at full liberty to consult their own taste or finances in every other article, for some wore breeches, some pantaloons, some appeared with gaiters, some without, some had shoes and others half-boots.

It is a remark in frequent use, that the efficiency of an army may be measured by the skill of the general; but the French soldiers have expanded the observation, and have exhibited the wonderful spectacle of skilful soldiers fighting under, and frequently enlarging the views and combinations of able generals. The animal organization of Frenchmen befits them for soldiers; their supple muscular form and height seldom exceeding five feet five or six inches, admit

of great activity of movement, and the support of great fatigue: their minds quick, volatile, inquisitive, and fertile in expedients, enable them to see the intentions of their commanding officers in a movement, which, to the soldiers of many other countries, would only be known by results. The French commanders know how to gratify that national cast of intellect so useful to their operations, by frequently imparting to a soldier of a company, for the purpose of wider communication, the principal movements in contemplation, previous to their engaging. The vanity of a French soldier is also another most valuable quality in his composition: he takes the deepest interest in the execution of every order, because he thoroughly believes that he is acquainted with all its objects; and upon the achievement of a victory, there is scarcely a French drummer who would hesitate endeavoring to make his hearer believe, that the fortune of the day was owing to some judicious idea of his own: to this vanity the military bulletins which announce successes in all the pomp of language, or convert a disaster into a retrograde victory, are addressed; for a Frenchman, even more than an Englishman, almost always believes what he is told, and is ever the last to confess a defeat. It is a rule with the French officers to give their troops as little trouble as possible when not actually in service, and to keep them perpetually upon the alert when the campaign has commenced: by this measure their troops, contrary to a received opposite notion, are generally fresher than other troops; and as they are mostly composed of young men, are capable of marching more rapidly and longer than soldiers of mixed seasons of life. The French have another great advantage in their plan of combats, which resemble the mode of engaging at sea, practised so gloriously by the late immortal Nelson, that of beating against the centre of an enemy's line until they penetrate it; this they have several times successfully effected, by an almost endless reinforcement which the arbitrary levies furnish, and which in a moment supply the vacancy made by the bullet and the bayonet. To prevent any ill consequences from the impetuous temerity which might attend the first attack, a considerable corps of reserve is always formed of the more experienced troops, who are able to support their comrades in the front when too severely pressed, or of forcing them to rally, should they discover any disposition to fly. To their flying artillery, which are served by their

best soldiers, wherever the ground will best admit, they are also eminently indebted for their success: yet, with all those advantages, striking and eminent as they are, and the negative assistance which she derived from the frequently imbecile conduct of the enemy, France would perhaps never have been crowned with the success which has marked her march, had not her population been enormous, and had not the stupendous idea of placing a great portion of that population, by the novelty of a conscription, at the disposal of her ruler, been developed by the mighty monster whose name I have before mentioned. If she had had 20,000 men on the plains of Maida, she would have been spared the disgrace of seeing 7,000 of her chosen soldiers fly before 4,795 of the British arms under the gallant Stuart.

SINGULAR ADVENTURE.

In consequence, says our author, of having been informed the preceding evening that an imperial decree had passed, by which strangers entering the French empire were permitted to bring as much money into it as they chose, but were not suffered to take out of it more than what certain officers appointed for that purpose considered necessary for the prosecution of their journey, the surplus passing in the nature of a forfeiture to the crown, I concealed about thirty ducats, which fell within this description of overplus, in my cravat, and at five o'clock in the morning, marched from my hotel to the bureau des diligences par eau, a distance full two English miles, to be searched for this superfluity of cash, previous to my ascending the Rhine. At this house a scene took place which perhaps has not often occurred to travellers, in consequence of the temporary apprehension which it excited the ridiculous situation in which it placed me, and the retributive chastisement which it inflicted for thus venturing upon an hostile shore. I was introduced into a room looking upon the Rhine; at the bureau sat the director, a man who wore spectacles, with a strongly marked, expressive countenance, apparently about fifty years of age; upon my bowing to him he demanded of me, in German, who I was? I requested him to address me in French, which he did, repeating the question. I told him I was an American going to the Frankfort fair, upon which he put down his spectacles, and running up to me, squeezed my hand with a violence of compression infinitely more painful than agreeable, and exclaimed in very good English, "how happy
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is this day to me! for I too am an American." I was obliged to return the affectionate salutation, and also to express my delight in having, so far from our native home, met with a countryman. He then asked me from what part of America I came? "from Baltimore," was the answer. "Happier and happier!" cried he, renewing his embrace, "for I was born there too." At this moment I wished, for the first time in my life, all the force of the *amor patriæ* at the devil; but there was no time to be lost in meditating upon the peril and awkwardness of my situation. To prevent, as much as possible his interrogating me further about my adopted country, I addressed with all possible fluency, as many questions as I could suggest respecting Cologne, the Rhine, the war; in short, I touched upon every subject but what had an American tendency. To my observations he bowed, to my questions he gave very brief answers, and continued expressing his delight in seeing me, a delight which was very far from being reciprocal. After ordering his servants to bring breakfast for me, which I did not decline, although I had already taken that meal at my hotel, for fear of offending him, he made many inquiries after some persons whom he named, and mentioned to be of the first consequence in Baltimore. I gave him to understand that I had left that city when quite a boy; but upon his assuring me that I must remember or have heard of the persons he had named, I gave him to understand that my recollection of them was very imperfect, but that I believed they had perished by the yellow fever: upon hearing which he expressed great affliction, observing they were the dearest friends he had in Baltimore before he quitted it, about fifteen years since. In this uncomfortable situation I sat vis-à-vis with my tormentor, who continued, during breakfast, to overload me with expressions of kindness.

At last the skipper of the Rhine boat made his appearance, with the welcome information that the boat was ready, upon which the director ordered him to make up a bed for me on board if I wished it, and to shew me every possible attention, adding, that I was his particular friend and countryman. I now thought the hour of my deliverance was arrived, and that an adventure which promised so adversely would terminate in the display of the civilities I have enumerated; but it was determined that my correction was not yet sufficient, for as the director looked out of the window, he exclaimed, "here comes my secretary, a very steady young man, who can attend to the office for

the day," and then turning round to me, added, "and I can now have the happiness of going half a day's journey with you, which I am resolved to do; yes, I will shew to you how dear my countrymen are to me, by going as far as Bonn with you." Distressed and embarrassed beyond measure at this fresh proof of his provoking and perplexing regard for America and me, I tried in vain to prevail upon him not to think of carrying his politeness so far, and expressed my strong sense of the attentions with which he had already completely overwhelmed me: all that I urged appeared only to redouble the warmth of his expressions, and to confirm him in his determination.

With a heavy heart and a light countenance we walked arm in arm down to the shore, and ascended the boat, over which, as well as all the other Cologne passage boats, it appeared he had complete sovereignty by virtue of his office, and in a minute afterwards the towing horse advanced at a rate of about two English miles and a half in an hour on the French side of the river. The director made me sit next to him in the cabin, telling the passengers, who appeared to me very respectable, that I was an American and his countryman, and that that was the happiest day he had experienced for fifteen years. In the course of conversation with him, from the gasconade stories which he related of his own exploits, I was induced to entertain suspicions of his character; he told me that he was one of the most conspicuous characters in the French revolution; that General Custine owed all his glory in the field to him; that he had long resided at Berlin, where he had, by his intrigues, maintained for some time a complete ascendancy in the Prussian cabinet; that he was engaged in a vast literary work, in which all the great events that had agitated the world for the last ten years, would be unfolded in a manner never before developed; that he had entered into the service of the French Emperor, solely to promote the interest of the empire. He observed, after engaging my word to keep the matter secret until I reached my own country, that the emperor was abhorred throughout the empire, that he was a remorseless tyrant, and that he could prove him to be a coward.

To the latter part of his assertion I took care to offer no remark, but under the pretence of wishing to view the city of Cologne at a distance, the river and the country, and also to gain a little respite from such a rapid succession of untoward circumstances, I ascended the top of the cabin

and refreshed myself by making the sketch engraved. The tower, the mighty mass of the unfinished cathedral, the numerous spires, the shores on either side, the rapid motion of the vessels descending the Rhine, the singing of those on board, the clear brilliancy of the sky, afforded reanimating delight to my mind.

About ten o'clock my persecutor raised his head through the cabin door, to announce that dinner was ready, and to request my company: upon descending I found some soup, and beef roasted after the German fashion, and that the director had, while I was above, been taken ill, from the occasional agitation of the boat, that to allay his sickness he had asked one of the gentlemen on board for some brandy, and of which he had evidently taken a great deal too much: the spirit rapidly operated upon his head, and a more abominable nuisance in the shape of man I never beheld: incapable of sitting at table with such a miscreant, I resumed my old place where I had not been seated long before I heard him abusing all the passengers, except myself, for whom he again expressed "the assurance of his high consideration," and threatening to order them all to be thrown overboard, which he seemed to be perfectly able to do himself, for he was one of the most powerful men I ever beheld, upon which they relinquished the cabin to himself, and, excepting a very pretty French girl, came upon deck. Upon hearing her scream violently, I went below to see what influence his countryman could now have over the director: as I was handing her out of the cabin, he forcibly pulled me back, closed the door, and said, in a manner which was perfectly intelligible, though occasionally interrupted by the spasms of intoxication, "I know you, though you think I do not; you are no American, you are an Englishman, and a son of Mr. Eiskine the orator; you are here on a secret mission, and your life is in my hands, but I will not betray you." The reply I made was, "I am engaged in no secret mission, my soul would revolt at it, nor can I be the son of my Lord Eiskine, for he is now upon the ocean, as ambassador from the court of Great Britain to my country;" to which I added, "that it was in vain for him to attempt to deceive me any longer, for I was satisfied, by his observations respecting America, that he had not been born in that country:" to which, to my no little consternation, he replied, "No, nor have I ever been there, I am a German by birth, I was educated by an Englishman who lived at my father's, and I am now

in the service of one of the greatest heroes, and the most illustrious of men."

I know not whether my life was in peril, but it is certain my liberty was, and to preserve it; I thought that something should be immediately done: accordingly I ascended the top of the cabin, where all the passengers were assembled in a state of considerable uneasiness, from one of whom I borrowed a bottle of brandy and a coffee-cup, with which I returned to the director, and insisted upon drinking his health in some excellent spirit, and raising my hand and the bottle in a manner which, in his state, prevented him from seeing what I poured out, I affected to fill and drink it off; I then gave him a bumper, which I several times repeated in a similar manner, until the miscreant dropped under the table, where he continued in a state of utter insensibility, and with little appearance of life, until we arrived, which we did in about six hours, at Bonn, when he was taken out of the vessel by some men, conveyed to a house near the banks of the river, and thank, heaven! I saw no more of him, but proceeded with the rest of the passengers to a very neat inn a little way in the city, where we had an excellent dinner and some good white Rhine wine. The stream of the Rhine became less rapid as we approached Bonn, where its waters are shallower than in the neighbourhood of Cologne, where all large vessels ship their cargoes which are destined for any of the towns higher up, in craft constructed peculiarly for the purpose, and which draw much less water.

CITY OF BONN.

As I determined to sleep at Bonn, I had a favorable opportunity of seeing this beautiful little city which enabled the former Electors of Cologne to display their taste by selecting it for their residence. It was elegantly and justly observed by a French lady on board of the boat as we approached the city, *Voilà Bonne! c'est une petite perle!* no expression could describe it better; when I made my view of it, the dark clouds behind it set off the pearl-like appearance of the palace and buildings. I saw no spot on the Rhine in the shape of a town with ~~which~~ I was so much delighted; it consists of little more than 1,000 houses and 8,000 inhabitants. In the neighbourhood the country begins to undulate, and the vines make a luxuriant appearance. The wine made here and in the adjacent parts is tolerably good; that which grows upon

the black basalt hills further to the southward, is infinitely preferable, black being a powerful agent to attract and retain heat; hence the rents of hills are rather high. So powerful is this colour in attracting and retaining the heat that a very intelligent friend of mine, who resided some time in China, informed me, that for the purpose of ripening their fruits as early as possible, the Chinese gardeners paint their garden walls black, and lately in some parts of England this plan has been followed. Every thing in and about the city bears testimony to the enlightened liberality and refined taste of the last of the Electors of Cologne, who was cordially beloved and admired by all classes of his subjects. The building which was once his palace, is very extensive; it stands just without the city upon an elevation of ground, and commands a most enchanting prospect, embracing the windings of the majestic Rhine, part of the village of Poppledorff, a-devant monastery of Gruizberg crowning the summit of a hill, and at a distance the Seven Mountains, clothed with vineyards, and the spires of Coblenz. This beautiful building is now applied to government purposes; in the left wing towards the orange garden, which is prettily disposed, the French Emperor has preserved the Lyceum for instructing boys in Latin, Greek, German, French, mathematics, and philosophy: the professors are very able men, and the institution is in a very flourishing condition: this is one amongst the many noble establishments founded by the last Elector, which in his reign was kept in another quarter of the city: this elegant pile of building, which is now stripped of all its valuable ornaments, was raised by the Elector Clement Augustus in 1777, upon the same site, ~~on which~~ no less than four preceding palaces had fallen victims to the flames: there is a beautiful walk under a quadruple row of lime trees, which leads to a small country palace: this walk forms the fashionable parade of the city, and was graced by a number of beautiful and elegantly dressed ladies. Some very pleasant French officers, with whom I was walking in this place, expressed their surprise at seeing an Englishman amongst them, and I was obliged to find refuge again in my American adoption.

Through a beautiful and romantic country, by a short walk a little beyond Gruizberg, towards the south, is the picturesque hill of Godesberg, or Godshill, so-called from a sanative mineral spring flowing close to it, which

contains fixed air, iron, magnesia, and salt: the last Elector who never omitted any thing which could add to the comfort and happiness of his people, erected an assembly and other rooms, and also pleasure gardens for recreation close to the spring, and by some very wise regulations, encouraged the building of lodging houses. At this place, many of the unhappy French emigrants, after the revolution, found a little relief from the miserable recollections of their fallen fortunes and altered fate: the court of the prince bishop was remarkable for the elegance, hospitality, and refined freedom which reigned throughout it, and in return in every visitor he beheld a friend. The influence of this scene of courtly felicity upon the manners of the people had not as yet subsided. A peculiar air of refinement distinguished the deportment of the inhabitants: after an exquisite ramble, I returned through the square, a spacious irregular area, where the French troops quartered in the place were exercising, and where a very ancient Gothic town-house stands, to supper at my hotel, at the table d'hôte of which I again smarted for the temerity of trespassing upon this delightful spot. During our repast, which abounded with a great variety of choice and excellent dishes, and which was attended by many French officers, a German lady who sat opposite to me, always addressed and alluded to me by the perilous name of "*Monsieur Anglois*," which excited some considerable attention amongst the company towards me; at last a French officer whose physiognomy did not present the most pleasing collection of features, rose up, eyed me all over, and went out: I expected nothing less than being obliged to take shelter once more under my American alliance, but after waiting in the room an hour, I saw nothing more of him, and went to bed. Whilst a cruel and savage state of hostility between man and man thus embarrassed the progress of a traveller, whose only object was to contemplate the beautiful face of nature, never did the divine object of his pursuit appear more arrayed in the smiles of peace and loveliness. The government of Bonn, as well as Cologne, and all the other cities on the left bank of the Rhine is vested in a governor appointed by Napoleon, and is purely military. Under a clear and cloudless sky I bade adieu to Bonn with great reluctance, and embarked on board of the passage-boat bound to Cassel. As we passed the lofty towers of Plittersdorf, on our right the Rhine unfolded itself in all its glory. On our left the seven moun-

tains (Sieben Geburge) called the Drakenfels, Wolkenbourg Rolandsecke, Löwenburgh, Nonneustrouberg, Hoke Oehlbeiy, and Hämmerick, arose with uncommon grandeur, crowned with convents and the venerable ruins of castles. In distant ages, many a German baron bold resided in rude dignity with his martial followers, upon the summit of these mountains, from whence they waged war against each other, and many of their remains of antiquity are the work of Valentinian in the fourth century, who overthrew the Germans, and who fell a victim to his inordinate passion, for when the Quadi sent to him to make a peace, the awkward appearance of some of the ambassadors so enraged him, that he in his anger burst an artery.

Drackenfels has infinitely the advantage of situation; it rises perpendicularly from the river to a stupendous height, crowned with the roofless remains of an ancient castle, brown with antiquity; midway it is covered with luxuriant vines, whilst all above is red and grey rock. The other mountains, which recede to a great distance, appeared to be clothed with the clustering grape, on the opposite side the vineyards, sloping close to the water's edge, extended as far as the eye could reach.

As we advanced, a beautiful island in the centre of the river, covered with poplars, walnut trees and elms, from the bosom of which arose the roof and belfry of the monastery of Nonen Werth, or worthy Nuns, formed the back scene: the bosom of the river was enlivened with the peasants of the neighbourhood moving in boats worked and steered with paddles, and the banks of the French territory with groups of French soldiers bathing, and singing their national songs.

As we passed the monastery the matin bells rung, and gave a romantic interest to the scene: this pious seclusion is included in the French line of sovereignty, and was condemned by Buonaparte to change its owners and its nature for ever; but at the earnest intercession of the Empress Josephine, he consented to suffer the sisterhood to enjoy it during their lives, after which it will devolve to the empire. Wherever power could effect and policy justify the measure, Buonaparte has displayed his decided hostility to monastic establishments of every description; he considers them as so many sinks of sloth, in which all the noble principles and purposes of life become stagnant. In Paris only one convent, that of the Blue Nuns, is per-

mitted to remain. The numerous convents which adorn the French side of the Rhine with the most picturesque appearance, are either converted into fabrics, or suffered to run to dilapidation: the river from its meanderings, is land locked all the way, every turning of which surprised and captivated me with some new beauty. Here, behind a line of walnut, lime, and beech trees, just skirting the margin of the river, a stupendous pyramidal cliff appears, with every projection upon which the cultivator could lodge a layer of vegetable mold, supporting a little growth of vine; there, mountains of vineyards, relieved by mouldering castles, and convents rising from masses of rock shooting forwards, or piercing the sky from their pointed pinnacles, arrest the attention. Sometimes a torrent brightens before the beholder, and instantly roars upon the ear; at others the naked bed of one appears, or a rude gap through which the eye penetrates into ranges of other vine-clad mountains, variegated with majestic ruins, is seen. At the base of the hills on the sides of the river numerous towers and villages constantly appear, defended by ancient walls and turrets, adorned with venerable churches, brown with age, surmounted with lofty spires, every where inviting the reflection of the moralist, the investigation of the antiquary, the song of the poet, and the pencil of the painter.

ANDERNACH.

Almost all the immense mass of mountains which extend from Bonn to Andernach, is composed of the basalt and slate; the former has a more artificial appearance than almost any other mineral production. In no form can it puzzle the philosopher more than at the Giant's Causeway, in Ireland, where it assumes a columnar shape, which has every appearance of having been chiseled by the hand of a skilful mason, and of having been regular granite cooling after fusion, and formed into regular masses by crystallization. In the small cavities of these mountains the martins and swallows find refuge, and in a comfortable state of torpidity pass through the cold and cheerless weather of winter. The children of the peasantry amuse themselves in discovering their retreats, at an apparent exposure of their own lives.

In an amphitheatre of vast dusky basalt mountains, the sombre gates, towers and pinnacles of Andernach appeared: in consequence of the river making a long sweep, I landed with an intention of rejoining the boat at a village

named by the skipper; a more solemn scene of gloom and grandeur, I never contemplated: the ruins of this town towards Coblentz are of great antiquity. The inhabitants insist upon it, that the remains of the Emperor Valentine are deposited in one of their churches, and that Julius Cæsar when he so victoriously fought against the Suabians, passed over the Rhine at this spot, where Drusus, the general of Augustus, built one of those fifty castles which are erected on the banks of the Rhine: but the French, who narrowly investigated every part of the river which their victorious arms enabled them to visit, with great acuteness, and with the assistance of history, believe that this celebrated landing was effected a little higher up the river, a short distance from Engers, at a place, called the White Tower (*der Weiss-Thurm*), the venerable front of which I saw as I afterward advanced on our right, in the centre of a sudden recess of the river, where it has the appearance of having served the united purposes of a castle and a watch-tower; at its base is a considerable village, which formerly belonged to the Elector of Treves: this situation is from a combination of local advantages, peculiarly favorable to the completion of such a passage, and in confirmation of the opinion, a great number of Roman antiquities have been found there. General Hoche, at the head of an immense army, aided by the obscurity of the night, crossed the Rhine at this place in 1797, and astonished the imperial troops the next morning by their presence.

This was the last exploit of that general. Near this tower there are deposited his remains, over which a mausoleum has been erected. This young commander died of an enlargement of the heart at Wetzlar. His funeral was conducted with uncommon military pomp. The procession moved from this place where he died, across the Rhine to the White Tower, amidst the discharge of cannon, which were fired every quarter of an hour.

The trade of the Rhine is here very flourishing, for exclusive of the neighbouring vineyards which produce fine wines, and the basalts of the adjoining mountains used for building and paving, this city derives considerable wealth from the lapis tephaceus or tuf stone, the harder sort of which form excellent mill-stones; vast quantities are shipped for Holland, to construct or repair its dykes with, and the more friable is used for building, whilst its powder mixed with lime forms the hardest and most durable cement. I saw the cabins of several *treck-schuyts* in Holland

covered with it, which were perfectly impervious to the rain: the Germans also use it to floor their houses with. This stone is considered to be a species of the pumice-stone, or imperfect lava, and of volcanic production.

On the banks leading to this city, I saw part of one of those amazing floats of timber which are formed of lesser ones, conveyed to this city from the forests adjoining the Rhine, the Moselle, the Maine, &c.; these floats are attached to each other, and form a platform generally of the enormous dimensions of eight hundred feet in length, and one hundred and sixty in breadth, upon which a little village containing about eighty wooden houses is erected for the accommodation of those who are interested in, and assist in navigating this stupendous raft, frequently amounting to seven and eight hundred persons, men, women, and children; besides these buildings, there are stalls for cattle, slaughtering houses, and magazines for provisions: the float is prevented from striking against the shores, where the turnings are abrupt, by the application of thirty or forty anchors, which, with the necessary cables, are conveyed in fourteen or fifteen boats which precede it, and its course is safely directed by German and Dutch pilots, who are hired for the purpose.

After great rains, when the current is rapid, the whole is entrusted to its propelling force, otherwise several hundred persons are employed in rowing, who move their oars at a given word of command. The whole of these wonderful moving masses is under the entire direction of a governor or superintendant, and several officers under him. Sometimes they are months in performing their voyage, in consequence of the water being low, in which case they are obliged to wait till the river is swelled by the rains. In this manner they float from the *high* to the *low countries*, and upon their arrival at the place of destination, the whole is broken up, and finds a ready market. About twelve of them annually arrive at Dort, in Holland, in the months of July and August, where these German timber-merchants having converted their floats into good Dutch ducats, return to their own country with their families, to enjoy the produce of their labour and enterprize.

The clergy and monks in Andernach used to be, to ~~use~~ a good-humoured homely expression of a late illustrious statesman, upon an application made to him for a place under his administration, "as thick as five in a bed;" beside six vicars belonging to a large parish church, there

were no less than five crowded convents, and the population did not exceed four thousand souls: the convents are now converted into garrisons for French soldiers, and store-houses for tradesmen. After viewing the city, I set off on the road to Coblenz, with a view of meeting the boat at the place appointed, and after walking about two miles, I lost all traces of the river; however, observing about three parts of a mile the tops of a long semicircular line of poplars, I concluded the river flowed by them, and I accordingly endeavoured to penetrate to the bank through a large willow wood, in which I soon lost myself. At last, however, I succeeded in forcing a way into a little footpath, in pursuing which I suddenly came upon a Frenchman, poorly clothed in green, with a book in his hand; he courteously addressed me, remarked that I looked rather warm, and conducted me to a recess in the wood, close to the water, where there was a bed of straw and a gun; at first I regarded him as a robber, but he soon gave me to understand that he was a link in a vast chain, composed of forty thousand soldiers, placed in this sort of ambuscade at the distance of a gun shot from each other, by the orders of the government of France, to guard the left bank of the Rhine from smugglers; and that to prevent contraband practices, no boat is suffered to pass either up or down the river after sunset, without being fired upon; that they are always clothed in a sombre dress, to prevent observation, and are concealed in this manner wherever the sides of the river will admit of it. Upon my informing him that I had lost my way and my boat, he politely assured me that it had not yet ascended the river, and hailed a little punt passing by, which enabled me to regain the vessel, then very fortunately just approaching. Notwithstanding the vigilance of the French police, the rafts I have described carry on a considerable contraband trade in the Rhine in wines and Seltzer water.

Opposite to the spot where this occurrence took place, at the bottom of a range of hills, is the delightful town and palace of Neuwied, built of white stone, at one end of the line of poplars which I have mentioned, and almost the only town I saw without walls or any sort of fortification on the Rhine. Nothing could exceed the air of happiness and prosperity which seemed to reign in this delectable little capital, which looked perfectly fresh and new, the prince of which receives, because he deserves, the affections of his subjects; every one on board, with great vivacity,

spoke of the toleration, the liberal extension of the rights of citizenship to foreigners, and the public spirit of its ruler. The place is enriched by several flourishing iron works, steel, paper, and cotton manufactures (the latter, the first introduced into Germany); printing, watch, and ingenious cabinet-making. Before the last war, in the forges and founderies, and different fabries, not less than four thousand persons were employed, and their circulation at a fair has been known to amount to forty or fifty thousand florins. There is an establishment of Moravian brethren here more numerous than at Zeyst. The last and the present wars have of course considerably reduced the number of workmen, by forcing many of them into the army; but, notwithstanding, there is no town on the Rhine in a more enviable condition; for every thing which can impart content and felicity to man. It was a curious and highly interesting circumstance to see in Neuwied and Andernach, almost opposite to each other, the most modern and the most ancient city on the Rhine. The price of freight upon the Rhine is rather high: before the French united together so many petty sovereignties it was much higher, owing to the number of tolls which were paid to each; previous to that event there were no less than twelve tolls to discharge between Cologne and Amsterdam.

We had a very good table d'hôte on board, at a moderate price, abundance of Rhine crabs, excellent grapes, and a variety of other fruits, which, as well as the most delicious bread I ever tasted, we purchased at the different towns where we stopped. I had the comfort of being attended by an intelligent, animated fellow, who had been in the service of the immortal Nelson, on board of one of the ships which he commanded, and afterwards with the English army in Egypt, who offered his services on board the boat at a very reasonable rate. The richness, novelty, and majesty of the scenery, kept me constantly on the roof of the cabin, from the early hour of starting till the hour of nine at night, when, for the reason stated, we always stopped at some town or village till morning. In these stoppages we entirely depend upon the variable velocity of the current, not to say a word of the caprice of our skipper, or the influence which the residence of any particular favourite or friend might have upon him; the consequence of which was, that we arrived at places to sup and sleep where we were not expected, and of course our patience was put to a little, but never to considerable trial. Within three or

four miles of Coblenz, on our right in ascending the river, we passed a pyramidal mausoleum, erected to the memory of the French general Marceau, who distinguished himself at the battle of Mons and Savenai, and died of the wounds which he received at the battle of Altenkirchen in 1796.

At Bendorf, a romantic village on our left, upon a branch of the river, a terrible battle was fought between the French army, commanded by General Hoche, and the Austrians, after the former had effected the passage I have before mentioned, from the white tower, which, after a tremendous slaughter on both sides, terminated in the retreat of the imperial troops. In this battle an extraordinary instance of prowess and enthusiasm occurred, which is said to have decided the fate of the day: the French had frequently attacked an Austrian redoubt, the possession of which was of great consequence to them, and had as often been repulsed with great carnage; at last a French general rode up to the grenadiers commanded by Captain Gros, and exclaimed, "Soldiers, swear to me that you will make yourselves masters of that redoubt!" "We swear," replied Gros, holding up his hand, and his soldiers doing the same: they returned to the attack with redoubled fury, and the haroc became dreadful: the French troops were upon the point of again giving way, when their leader had his right arm crushed by a grape shot, upon which, with a smile of triumph, he grasped his sabre with his left, rallied his men and carried the redoubt. As we turned a considerable meander of the river by Nenendorf, one of the grandest spectacles I almost ever contemplated opened upon me: the mighty rock of Ehrenbreitstein, formerly called the Gibraltar of the Rhine, with its dismantled batteries, ~~and~~ ruined castles, rose with awful and unexampled majesty on the south; at its base was the palace formerly belonging to the Elector of Treves, and the tower bearing the name of this wonderful fortification; and immediately opposite to it, as we advanced a little farther, the beautiful city of Coblenz appeared. Here we were obliged to be separated from our horse, on account of the Moselle, which discharges itself into the Rhine at this ~~place~~ the mouth of which we crossed by the assistance of our boatmans' poles. Over this river there is a handsome stone bridge of many arches, and formerly there was a bridge of boats from this city to Ehrenbreitstein, which has been most judiciously removed, and succeeded by one

of the flying bridges before described, by which a more convenient communication is kept completely open, and the navigation is not impeded. Coblenz is a very ancient city; it was the seat of the Roman emperors, and of the kings of the Franks, and a favourite residence of the archbishops and electors of Treves, who, in ancient times of broil and peril, resided in the castle which crowns the majestic rock opposite to the city. Before the French revolution there were three parish churches, two colleges, a church belonging to the Jesuits, four convents of monks, dominicans, carmelites, franciscans, and capuchins, and three nunneries. At that period the population of the inhabitants, of the garrison, and the vale of Ehrenbreitstein, was calculated at 12,000 souls; at present it is not supposed to exceed nine thousand. The city has many good and some handsome buildings, and is further recommended by its supplies of excellent mines, pit-coal, wood, and lime. Its best square is the Clemenstadt; there are several handsome hotels, of which the ancient hotel, the vast rock which formerly protected it, and the antiquity of its buildings, cast a gloomy grandeur over the whole place, which never exhibited so much gaiety as in the winter of 1791, when the French princes and their followers were nobly entertained and protected here by the Elector, before they marched to Champagne, to experience those disasters which finally confirmed the overthrow of their devoted house.

COBLENZ.

Coblenz derives its name by not a little meander of etymology, from the confluence of the Rhine and the Moselle at its base. Ausonius, one of the most celebrated of the Latin poets of the fourth century, wrote five hundred verses in commemoration of this river, which, compared with the majesty of the river into which it rolls and is lost, is scarcely worthy of such an honour: the view from its banks is also in an equal degree of comparative inferiority, and by the unceasing agitation of its confluence, it has the reputation of having alarmed the tender nerves of the river-fish, of which the inhabitants of this city are not so well supplied as the neighbouring towns.

One of the most beautiful objects in this place is the new palace, built to the south of the city, close to the Rhine, by that splendid and amiable prince, the Elector Clement Venceslas; it is of brick stuccoed, to resemble stone, has a noble Ionic portico, and including its wings,

extends one hundred and eighty yards. A further description of its exterior, as I have made a drawing of it, and moreover as it is now converted into an hospital, were useless. Its grand stair-case, its apartments consisting of a chapel, an audience-hall, concert-room, library, cabinet, dining-room, besides an immense number of other rooms, excited the admiration of every visitor, by their magnitude, magnificence, or elegance. Its furniture, its mantle-pieces, its tapestry, and inlaid floors, all corresponded in taste and splendor with the rest of the building; now not a vestige of its consequence or original destination remains, but what its walls displayed. Most of the windows are broken, stuffed with hay, or further disfigured by having linen hanging out to dry from them; the area before the grand front, which was formed into an elegant promenade, is now broken, and its graceful plantation totally destroyed. A little way further to the southward, on the opposite side, under the impending rocks of Ehrenbreitstein, is the old palace, a sombre building, which the Elector Clement quitted almost entirely on account of its gloom, and the humidity of its situation.

The Elector of Treves excited the indignation of the French against him very early in the French revolution, by encouraging the expatriated French princes to reside and hold their counter-revolutionary councils at Coblentz. In September, 1794, General Jourdan, with his accustomed energy, compelled the Austrians to retreat to Hervé, and afterwards to Aix la Chapelle, when, supported by the main body of the army, the French attacked all the enemy's posts from Ruremonde to Jülich: at this eventful period, General Clairfayt having occupied a strong position upon the Roer, resisted the French for some time, but their ardor and numbers at length compelled the Austrians to retire into Germany, leaving behind them ten thousand of their comrades, killed or taken prisoners, in the short space of three days; and soon afterwards a detachment of the French army, under the command of General Moreau, entered Coblentz as victors, Cologne being already in their possession, and Mainz, or Mayence, the only city in the possession of the allies on the left bank of the Rhine.

I was informed by some French officers who were in the boat with me, that the society in Coblentz was very elegant; that a number of families lived in splendor; and also, that Bonaparte had continued with some modifications, the colleges, and most of the public institutions,

which the Electors of Treves had at various times established in that city. The vast and celebrated monastery, called in German Karthaus, or La Chaitreuse, situated on a high mountain, in the neighbourhood to the west of Coblenz, from which the countries of Treves, Mayence, Cologne, Darmstadt, d'Anspach, and Wied, may be seen, is converted into an observatory, and a place of very agreeable recreation.

EHRENBREITSTEIN.

Upon my return, in descending the Rhine, I had an opportunity of more closely seeing Ehrenbreitstein, which I was enabled to do from the following circumstance: the Rhine schuyt was uncommonly crowded, and late in the evening we arrived at a hamlet on the right bank of the river to sleep: the house in which we were to pass the night was not able to furnish beds more than barely sufficient for the ladies on board, which at once determined a French officer, one of the party, who had not placed his head upon a pillow for three preceding nights, and who was a wretched invalid, apparently in the last stage of a decline, to hunt amongst the cottagers for a fidler, to whose miserable sounds this epitome of his nation, with several other officers and petty German merchants, danced till the dawn of day, *pour passer le tems*, and the boat was ready to proceed. Having found by moon-light a nook in a peasant's nest, in the most romantic situation under heaven, I lay down, and never awoke till an hour after the boat had departed, in which dilemma I was obliged to hire a punt with two paddles, and by the assistance of a couple of sturdy peasants overtook the passage-boat, which lay off Coblenz, during which I visited Ehrenbreitstein. At its base there is a pretty town and an excellent hotel; opposite to the palace is a walk of limes, close to which was moored the electoral state yacht, or barge, in shape and size resembling our Lord Mayor's, but not quite so gaudy. The ascent to this stupendous rock, which is eight hundred feet in a perpendicular line above the level of the river, is by a very narrow, steep, and winding path: the noble fortification on its sides, and the castles, arsenals, barracks, and batteries upon its summit, from whence the eye can behold the mountains of Lorraine, the meanders of the Rhine, and the countries through which it flows to a vast distance, and from which the beholder might almost think he could step into the clouds, are all roofless and dismantled. The citadel

was erected by the order of the Prince Bishop Herman Hillions, in the 12th century, upon the ruins of an ancient Roman building.

In the centre of the square, or parade upon the top, was formerly mounted the celebrated cannon, called "the Grif-fon," as well known to the Germans as that called "Queen Anne's pocket-piece" is to the English. The former merits the national pride which it has excited. It was cast at Frankfort by order of the Elector, Richard Griefenklaui, weighed thirty thousand pounds, and was capable of projecting a ball of one hundred and eighty pounds, to a distance of sixteen miles. Close to the touch-hole there was the following inscription: "Vogel Grief heis ich, meinem gütigen herrn von Trier dien ich, wo er mich heist gewanten, da will ich Thoren und mauren Zerspalten. Simon gos mich, 1528." In English—"Grif-fon is my name, I serve my gracious master of Treves, I shatter gates and walls, whenever he commands me to exert my force. Simon cast me, 1528." This rock was supplied with water from a well 280 feet deep, which occupied three years in digging, in the year 1481, and has a subterranean communication with Coblentz, dug out of the solid rock: the fortress was justly deemed, when properly garrisoned, impregnable. In the time of the Swedish war, the attacks of eighty thousand French troops on the southern side of it, and of forty thousand on the northern, could make no impression upon it: however, still maintaining its invulnerable character, it was ~~to~~ ^{not} destined to bend to a foe, before which all local advantage is useless, and all enterprize unavailing: after bravely sustaining a blockade for a whole year, by the troops of the French republic, the garrison having endured with the greatest fortitude almost every description of privation and misery, were obliged to surrender to *famine*, and capitulated on the 28th January, 1799: soon after which the French covered this mighty rock with the ruins of those wonderful fortifications, which had employed the skill of the ablest engineer to complete, and which, but for the want of food, would have defied the force of her assailing enemy to the end of time. The thal, or valley below, is justly celebrated for its fertility and romantic beauty.

Soon after our departure from Coblentz, we passed the island of Obewerth; and a little further on, on our left, the disengagement of the river Lahn, which flows between two ancient and picturesque towns, called the Upper and Lower Stein, where the Rhine forms a considerable

curve, and expands into the resemblance of a placid lake, adorned with two vast mountains, one crowned with a hoary watch-tower, and the base of the other half encircled by a village, and the whole adorned by the captivating combinations of forest scenery, rich meadows, and hanging vineyards and orchards, midst which, half embosomed in their foliage, the peasant's peaceful dwelling every now and then gladdening the eye. This lovely view was soon exchanged for one of gloomy magnificence; before we reached Boppard, we entered a melancholy defile of barren and rugged rocks, rising perpendicularly from the river to an immense height, and throwing a shade and horror over the whole scene: here all was silent, and no traces of man were to be found but in a few dispersed fishermen's huts, and crucifixes. Fear and superstition, "when the day has gone down, and the stars are few," have long filled every cave with banditti, and every solitary recess with apparitions.

In the course of my passage I frequently, when the boat came very near the land, sprung on shore with two or three other passengers, and varied the scene by walking along the banks for a mile or two, and during these excursions had frequently an opportunity of admiring the astonishing activity and genius of the French, who have, since they became masters of the left bank of the Rhine, nearly finished one of the finest roads in the world, extending from Mayence to Cologne, in the course of which they have cut through many rocks impending over the river, and triumphed over the most formidable obstacles Nature could present to the achievement of so wonderful a design. This magnificent undertaking, worthy of Rome in the most shining periods of her history, was executed by the French troops, who, under the direction of able engineers, preferred leaving these monuments of indefatigable toil and elevated enterprise, to passing their time, during the cessation of arms, in towns and barracks, in a state of indolence and inutility.

The sombre spires of Boppard, surrounded by its black wall and towers, presented a melancholy appearance to the eye, relieved by the rich foliage of the trees in its vicinity, and the mountains behind it irregularly intersected with terraces covered with vines to their very summits. The antiquity of this city is very great; it was one of the fifty places of defence erected on the banks of the Rhine by

Drusus Germanicus, and in the middle ages was an imperial city.

Not far from Boppard we saw, on the right bank of the river, a procession of nuns and friars returning to a convent, the belfry of which just peeped above a noble avenue of walnut-trees; they were singing, and their voices increased the solemn effect of the surrounding scenery. We put up for the night at a little village, amid mountains half covered with vineyards, tufted with forests, and chequered with convents and ruined castles. The evening was stormy, and a full moon occasionally brightened the scene.

I have before mentioned the excellent accommodations which I every where experienced at the different towns we stopped at. Although at the last place where we slept there were not above three or four houses, and we were not expected, we had an excellent supper, and clean comfortable beds. After our repast, as we were drinking some excellent hock, many of the company present communicated the object of their voyage, and amongst the rest an elegant young Frenchman, about nineteen, who had charmed us all the way by his politeness and inexhaustible flow of spirits, told us, to my no little surprize, that the object of his excursion would not admit of his returning when he pleased, for he was on his way to join part of the French army at Maynz, or Mayence, as a *conscript*, for which he had been drawn; and as his father, who was a man of fortune at Aix-la Chapelle, but was very fond of his money, would not put himself to the expence of paying the substitution money for him, "*par conséquence*," said he, with a smile of good humour, "*il m'e faut aller en personne*." He told us that he had no hopes of raising himself from the ranks but by good conduct and equally good fortune, although his uncle was a general in the service, and commanded that part of the army into which he was soon to be incorporated. Whenever we stopped, he bestowed his money with liberality to beggars and chambermaids, alledging, that as he was about to be a soldier, he ought to live, when he became one, on a soldier's pay, and that to have more till he was promoted, would only make him uncomfortable; adding, that on his arrival at head quarters, he should order a noble dinner, and give his clothes to the waiters, and surrender himself up to the captain of his company. He neither blamed the cruelty of his father, the tyranny of the conscription, nor repined at his unlucky fate, but filling a bumper, exclaimed, "*Tout ce qu'il me*

saut maintenant, c'est, de devenir bon soldat." "All that I have to do is to make myself a good soldier." I never saw a point more easily and comfortably settled in my life. Our young conscript had the best wishes of us all, for his happiness and speedy promotion. This elastic spirit of vivacity seems to be the common property of every Frenchman, and never did it appear more striking than in the following circumstance. Upon an English surgeon some years since visiting an hospital at Paris, he saw in one of the wards three Frenchmen who had received some very severe contusions by the fall of a scaffold a few days before, lying in bed; upon approaching them he found one dead, another dying, and the one in the middle sitting upright in the bed, fiddling to several invalids, who were dancing at the foot of it as well as they were able.

After a refreshing sleep we were called, upon the first intimation of the day's approach, and early in the morning arrived at St. Goar, after passing by the ancient gothic tower of Welmich, the white and venerable palace of Thurnburg, crowning the mountain behind it, and through most delicious and romantic scenery, every where profusely embellished with the hoary remains of piety and war, under the various tints of progressive day. In a minute after the boat had stopped, all the passengers disappeared to attend matins, it being Sunday, and left me to gaze in amazement upon the stupendous rock of Rheinfels, or the rock of the Rhine, which rises most majestically behind the town, and supports the remains of a vast fortress which bears its name, and which the French demolished in the last war. This fortress was next in strength to that of Ehrenbreitstein; it was in the year 1243 converted from a convent to a fortress, by Count Diether le Riche. In 1692 the Hessians, who were in possession of it, made a gallant defence, headed by Colonel Goerz, against the French, who were in superior force under the command of the celebrated Mareschal de Tallard, who was compelled to give up the siege. In the last war it experienced a different fate: the French troops took quiet possession of it, and though it ranked next to Ehrenbreitstein in strength and advantage, it partook not of the glory of a similar resistance. At the foot of this enormous rock is a large barrack lately built, but now deserted. There was also a flying bridge here, but it has been removed.

ROCK OF RHEINFELS.

In a bay of the river a little before we approached Ober-

wesel, there is a vast rock, which the passengers on the river never fail to address, for the purpose of hearing their own voices very closely imitated by its echoes. Almost all the way from St. Goar to Oberwesel, we were environed by enormous dark rocks covered with shattered fragments, impending over and embrowning the face of the river with their awful shadows. The gloom of the scene was enlivened only by a few fishermen's huts here and there interspersed, protected from the intense heat of the sun retained by and reflected from the rocks rising above them, by the foliage of scanty groups of trees. This melancholy defile prepared us for Oberwesel, a venerable city, filled with the solemnity of ancient churches and deserted convents. In the time of the emperor Henry the Seventh, this city was an imperial one; afterwards, and till the French seized it, it was in the possession of the Elector of Treves. The church of the Minorites had once a fine copy of Rubens' Descent from the Cross, by a disciple of his, which upon enquiry I found had been removed. Nothing can exceed the beauty of the situation of this town; the scenery to the south of it is luxuriant and romantic beyond imagination. Close to it, rising from an avenue of stately walnut-trees, is a prodigious rock, supporting the celebrated chateau de Schoenberg, which gave birth to the illustrious and ancient family of the name of Belmont, afterwards changed for the German name of Schoenberg or Beaumont: this place and the neighbourhood abound with slate quarries. Immediately opposite, on the eastern bank, lofty mountains clothed with hanging vineyards, and attended by the usual association of mural ruins perched upon their pinnacles, and of monastic buildings projecting from their sides, or rising from their base, presented their majestic forms to the Rhine. From Oberwesel we crossed over to Kaub, a fortified town a little away further to the south. Previous to this we had kept, during the whole of the passage, on the left bank. In crossing the river we passed close to a large massy fortified tower, or fort, standing in the middle of the Rhine upon a rock, called the Pfalz or Palatinate. In distant times the Countesses of the Palatinate, when they were far advanced in that state which

"Ladies wish to be who love their lords,"

used to remove to this insulated spot of gloom for the purpose of lying-in; afterwards it was used as a state prison, and a place to watch the vessels ascending or descending

the Rhine, to prevent their eluding the tolls; it is now dis-used, but not likely very soon to run to decay for want of inhabitants. Enthusiastically as I admire the scenery of this part of the Rhine, I think I never saw a place where man or woman would less prefer to be *confined* in, than the Pfalz.

At Kaub, a very ancient but neat town, which stands at the base of a lofty mountain, in a handsome inn close to the river, we tasted some delicious wine, the produce of the neighbouring vineyards, for which we paid about ten pence English the bottle: and we were regaled *gratuitously* with some of the finest grapes, which a pretty girl produced as naturally as pipes and tobacco are introduced in similar places in Holland. The vineyards of Oberwesel, Kaub, and Bacharach, and the two hills of Vogtsberg and Kühlberg near the last city, which abound with blue slate, produce a vine remarkable for its odour and muscadelle flavour, and form one of the distinguished vine divisions of this enchanting region.

Upon leaving Kaub we proceeded through a scene of transcendant richness and beauty, where our ears were delighted with the solemn choruses of the inhabitants of the villages returning in large crowded boats from their churches, and the bells of the convents, while the shores on either side were enlivened by the peasants in their sabbath dresses going to or returning from their respective places of worship. At length the hoary battlements of Bacharach open upon us; part of this town slopes from the vine-clad mountain behind it, and the remainder is close to the water. This town is also very ancient, and as a proof of its antiquity, derives its name from Bacchus, to whom tradition relates an altar was raised upon a rock in the centre of the Rhine. Indeed we might have supposed that he had been worshipped here in all the marvellous pomp ascribed to his original adoration, and that his priestesses, by striking the earth with their thyrsi, had caused rivers of milk and honey, and wine to flow.

This insulated rock was admirably adapted for bearing upon one of its trees, if ever one grew upon it, those little wooden or earthen images of Bacchus, which from the smallness of their mouths were called *Oscilla*, and were considered as so many watch towers, from which the god might look after the vines, to prevent their receiving injury. I know of no situation where he could have performed his tutelary duties better than in this very spot.

The vine here has been long celebrated for its excellence; the Emperor Venceslas preferred four fuder of this wine (a fuder is equal to three hundred and sixty gallons) to ten thousand florins offered to him by the inhabitants of Nuremberg, to redeem their sequestered privileges; and even Pope Pius the Second imported for his table a fuder of this wine annually. These are illustrious authorities in favour of the Bacharach wine, but the best is its flavor.

Fronting the august ruins of the castle of Sannek, the Rhine presents the appearance of an ample lake, and the mountains, which hitherto were numerous and lofty, recede as we approached the pretty village of Drgeckshausen, a little beyond which the river expands, and forms a noble curve near Asmanshausen, at the foot of a forest, celebrated for the convent of Aulenhauseu, much frequented by devotees. Asmanshausen is known for the fine blacker which it produces.

Nearly opposite to Ruppertsberg the navigation of the Rhine becomes very much impeded, and rendered hazardous by some vast rocks which just raise their heads above the surface of the water, and which our boatmen informed us had frequently occasioned the loss of lives. Here the country again becomes rude and rocky, occasionally covered with forest oak, and profusely ornamented with dilapidated castles.

A visible change in the scenery to which we had been accustomed, commenced as we approached Bingen: the hills retire farther from the banks of the river, more modern towns, yet occasionally chequered with the remains of antiquity, attract the eye, the trees of the forest succeed to the vines of the mountain, and in the room of stupendous rocks, rich meadows and corn fields present their novel charms.

BINGEN.

Bingen, which I visited upon my return, stands at the base of a lofty mountain, on the summit of which the ancient castle of Klopp is erected: the river Rhine disembogues itself by this city into the Rhine, over which there is a handsome stone bridge, called Drusus, from its having the reputation of having been constructed by Drusus Germanicus: this confluence of the two rivers enables Bingen to carry a considerable trade in Rhenish wines, grain, and timber.

RUDESHEIM.

As the shades of evening descended, we passed Ehren-

fels, and a little before nine arrived at Rüdesheim, where we supped at a very handsome hotel, and drank copiously of its wine, which is said to be superior to every other part of the Rhingau. Very early in the morning I visited the remains of a very magnificent castle, which has the appearance of a Roman origin: this opinion is countenanced by the strong evidences of the same character which attach to the antiquities to be found in towns within the Rhingau. The situation of this august ruin, which is close to the river, is commensurate to its grandeur: the town of Rüdesheim is large, clean, and cheerful, and has few of those features of awful gloom which characterize several of the cities on the lower sides of this river, which here widens to a great breadth, and is dotted over with luxuriant little islands. Upon entering this town we were more frequently retarded than we had been before, by the obstructions which terraces projecting into the river, and islands, offered to our rowing boats, who, with the driver was frequently belly deep in the water, which often forced our boatmen to the tedious application of their poles. The towns of Geisenheim, St. Barthelomä, and Winkle, presented the same sprightly and agreeable aspect as Rüdesheim. I have observed that many towns in the Rhingau are of Roman derivation in corroboration of which, many of their names are unquestionably so: as Winkel from Vinicella, Elvil, from Alta Villa; and Lorch, or as the Germans pronounce it, Larricke, from Laureacum, &c.

After quitting Rüdesheim, the noble priory of St. Johannesberg, proudly placed upon the summit of a vast mountain, surrounded with villages, hamlets, convents, nunneries, and other stately buildings, and having a back ground of distant hills covered with vine, commanded the admiration of all on board. This priory was founded in 1102, by Ruthard, second archbishop of Mayence, and in the devastating war of thirty years under Gustavus Adolphus, was razed to the ground. The land was afterwards sold to the abbot of Fulda, who rebuilt it in its present modern style and afterwards it was given to the late Prince of Orange as an indemnity, and now forms a part of the rich territory of the Prince of Nassau Usingen. In a cave or cellar belonging to the priory, several thousands of hogsheads of the choicest wines are kept. The red blecker of Johannesberg is celebrated all over the world, and is the juice of the vineyard of the priory only; but the finest produce of the Rhingau is from the grape of

Asmanshausen, Ehrenfels, and Rüdesheim, and particularly of some very small vineyards contiguous to them, called Rodtland, Hauptberg, and Hinterhausen, which rank the highest; and in this class also are included the numerous vineyards on the steep hills of Bingen, on the opposite shore. The second class embraces the vines of Rothenberg, Geisenheim, and Kapellgarten. The third class includes the grapes of Joannesberg, and the Fuldische Schlossberg. The fourth, the vines of Hattenheim, and Marker Brunner. The fifth, those of the cloister of Eberbach. Sixthly, those of Kitterich and Grafenberg; and the seventh, those of Raenthal, and the hills and spots adjacent. All these classes are included in the district of the Rhingan.

The celebrated hock, is the produce of the vineyards of Hockheim, or High-home above Mayence, to the eastward. Of the grape, that called the Reisluge, the longest known to these regions, ranks the highest; the Orleans grape, the orange or red Burgundy, and the Lambert, occupy the next place in the public estimation; and the Muscadelle and Kleinberg which are frequently cultivated in private gardens, the third.

We still continued our course on the left bank of the Rhine, and passed by many beautiful villages, and the handsome town of Haltenheim, Erbach, Elfeld, Steinheimerhof, Nieder or Lower Wallauf, where ancient churches and convents are interspersed amongst many handsome modern houses. We reached Nieder Wallauf, the last town of the Rhingan to the east, and afterwards Schierstein, a pretty town where, as our progress was so frequently delayed by the numerous islands which lie close to the bank, in company with a very pleasant and intelligent German, I quitted the boat, and walked to Biberich: the day was remarkably fine, and our road lay through luxuriant corn and pasture fields, vineyards, orchards, every where profusely adorned with castles, religious houses, picturesque cottages, and beautiful chateaus, behind which the vast forest of Landeswald extends to an immense distance: at length the numerous spires and the lofty towers and palaces of Mayence open upon us, from the opposite side of the river, and had a very venerable, and majestic effect.

BIBERICH.

Our entrance into an avenue of nearly a mile and a half

in length thickly lined with walnut, apple, pear, and plumb trees, loaded with fruit, announced our approach to Biberich, the superb palace of the Prince of Nassau-Usingen. As I made a drawing of this palace and the adjacent town when I descended the Rhine, and the boat was in a central part of the river, it will be unnecessary to describe it. I had no time to view the apartments, but my laquais informed me, that they were grand and furnished in a princely manner: the town is moderate, small, and very handsome. As we skirted Ingelheim, we were informed that the illustrious Charlemagne, the great prototype of Bonaparte, selected this place for his favorite residence, where he built a magnificent palace, which was supported by a hundred columns of Italian marble, and had an immense number of apartments, in which synods and the most important councils of state were held: that his son Louis le Debonnaire died broken-hearted here in consequence of the rebellions of his sons Lotharius and Louis.

Not a vestige remains of this celebrated pile to prove that it once existed: but in the life of Louis le Debonnaire, Nigellus thus consecrates this building.

*Est locus ille situs rapidi prope fœmina Rhœni,
Ornatus variis cultibus et dapibus.
Quo domus alta putet, centum perfixa columnis,
Quo reditus varii tectaque multimoda,
Mille aditus, relictus, millenæque claustra domorum
Acta magistrorum artificumque manu.*

No doubt is entertained that that august pile once embellished this spot. Charlemagne could not have chosen a place more advantageous with regard to his political relations, or more beautiful in richness and variety of scenery, where Nature every where saluted him with wine, with fruit, and every desirable production of a genial soil, fit to make glad the soul of an emperor.

BRIDGE OF BOATS.

In less than an hour after quitting Ingelheim we reached Cassel, immediately opposite Mayence, to which it communicates by an amazing long bridge, formed of a moveable platform, placed upon fifty-six lighters, two or three of which draw out at pleasure by means of ropes and pulleys, to open a passage for vessels ascending or descending the Rhine, and is three thousand eight hundred and thirty feet

long; one very similar to this was built by order of Charlemagne at the same place: here our voyage terminated. On account of the search of the custom-house officers being very severe on the French side, the passengers prefer being landed at Cassel: where all the bustle of a populous city, and a great military station, presented itself. The bridge was crowded with beautiful and elegantly dressed women. French officers, soldiers, and various other persons, in carriages and on foot, going to or returning from Mayence, which, with its venerable cathedral and splendid buildings, extending themselves along the river, had a very grand effect. Our luggage was searched by a German custom-house officer, who behaved very politely; and I proceeded to a good hotel in Cassel, and sat down with several French officers to some excellent refreshments.

In my description of the Rhine as I ascended it, I have from the desire of not fatiguing my reader, only noticed the principal towns and objects, some of which I visited then, and others, on my return. I felt myself abundantly rewarded by the unparalleled beauty and grandeur of those scenes, which so often excited my admiration and amazement, for any little inconvenience, and perhaps some little hazard, to which I was occasionally exposed, and I regret that I can only convey a very imperfect impression of them to those who have never had the good fortune to form their personal opinion of them.

MAYENCE.

Having been previously warned not to attempt to enter Mayence, which, as it is now incorporated with France, I shall call by that name, on account of the unusual rigour exercised by the police towards strangers, in consequence of the city being a great military depot of the French on the Rhine, and the greatest skill of their engineers having been lavished on its fortifications, I was content to view it from Cassel, and to receive some little account of it from a very intelligent German, who had resided there some years, as we looked upon the city from our hotel window. The electoral palace, of red brick, by the side of which the Rhine flows, where Bonaparte resided during his stay in Mayence, in 1804, presented a very noble appearance. The dome or cathedral, which rose with awful dignity before us, is a vast gothic pile, having four unequal towers: it had once a lofty spire, but a thunder-storm, many years since, beat it down with lightning,

and burnt a considerable part of the edifice. Few cities have suffered more than this by the ravages of war; most of its civil and sacred buildings have been at one period or another damaged or destroyed by cannon, the ruins of which still remain. My intelligent friend informed me that this city was celebrated for the great beauty of its female inhabitants, and that before the French took possession of it the electoral court threw a brilliant lustre over the place, which was unrivalled by any city on the Rhine for its gaiety, elegance, and splendor; characteristics which have been impaired, but far from annihilated. It contains colleges, lycæums, a theatre, and ball and concert rooms, all of which continue to be well attended.

Mayence, from its having been always considered as one of the great bulwarks of Germany, suffered most dreadfully in the last war. In October 1792, General Custine compelled it to surrender after a slight bombardment, and under his administration the majority of the inhabitants who did not fly entered cordially into the views of the French revolutionists: he augmented the fortifications of the city, and placed a strong garrison in the suburbs of Cassel, which has always been considered as a place of great importance, and raised a number of redoubts and batteries there. In July, 1793, the Prussians, after seizing on Costheim, and defeating an army under General Houchard, which was marching to succour the garrison of Mayence; reduced both that city and Cassel, the miserable inhabitants of which endured the greatest horrors, and many of the finest and most venerable buildings of the former were fired, and nearly destroyed, during the siege. Merlin, who acted as one of the commissioners to the French army during the siege, stated to the convention, that such was the scarcity of provisions, *a pound of horse-flesh had been sold at two, and a dead cat at six livres*, and that five thousand men had perished in defence of the place. Although Custine had no choice left but to capitulate, Bannere, by his report of the siege, led to his being denounced and decapitated. During this siege the palace of the provosts suffered terribly; the celebrated electoral palace called *La Favorite*, and seven churches, were totally destroyed; and scarce a house escaped without being pierced with cannon balls. Mutton sold for sixty sols a pound, and beef one hundred sols; and at last bell-metal and paper money were used.

The French were highly indignant at the loss of so important a place, and resolved upon attempting the recovery of it from its victors, as soon as the mighty objects which claimed on all sides the activity and energy of their rulers and generals, were accomplished; and accordingly, in June 1795, the French army again blockaded this devoted city, during which it sustained a renewal of its suffering, from which it again was relieved by the successful operations of Mareschal Clairfayt, at the head of the Austrians against the revolutionary troops, who were attacked and routed upon the heights of Mornbach, when the Mareschal appeared before Mayence, attacked and carried the entrenched camp of the enemy, upon which the skill of their ablest engineers had been exerted for eleven months to render it invulnerable. General Schaal, who occupied this strong position, on the retreat of Lomdan, with fifty-two battalions of infantry and five regiments of cavalry, was obliged to retire with great loss in cannon, ammunition, and men. In this bombardment some Tyrol sharp-shooters displayed their wonted skill in an amazing manner, by killing, from the banks of Cassel, several French officers with their rifle-pieces, who were walking on the ramparts on the opposite side of the river, the breadth of which I have already ascertained by the length of the floating bridge. In the beginning of the year 1797 a better destiny smiled upon the French arms in this region, and Moreau and Hoche made both sides of the Rhine resound with their victories, when the troops which garrisoned Mayence, to prevent the entire and unavailing demolition of the city, relinquished its possession, and the French remained masters of it.

Volumes have been written upon the superior pretension of Mayence to the original invention of the art of printing, and to transfer the honors of the discovery from Lawrence Coster of Haarlem to John Guttenburg, a citizen of this place. A vast deal of special pleading has been displayed on both sides; and, to use a jockey phrase, these racers for the merited gratitude and admiration of all who followed them, reached the goal almost "neck and neck," but the majority of judgments given appropriate the glory to Coster: his mode was the simplest, and therefore thought to be the earliest; his moulds were made of wood and immovable, and he stamped the paper only on one side: Guttenburg printed on both sides of the leaf with moveable metal types.

The extremity of the bridge towards Cassel, and all the ramparts and redoubts of the town, which are very strongly fortified, were occupied by French soldiers. With two German gentlemen and a Dutch officer, I sat off for Frankfort, distant eight stunder or hours, or four German miles, under a scorching sun, which did not seem to have any effect upon a large party of monks and priests, and followers bearing the host, who were walking bare headed in procession to a monastery which we had just passed, near which I left the carriage to make a sketch of Mayence, upon a projecting bank of the river Maine, where I bade adieu to the Rhine. Our road lay through an avenue of walnut, apple, and pear trees, loaded with fruit, to which passengers helped themselves whenever inclination disposed them to do so; and by part of the Hockheim hills, covered with the renowned vineyards, which produce what in England is called old hock. As many a saint, high in superstitious veneration, must have had at least ten skulls and one hundred toe nails, if no allusion has been practised by those who have exhibited them to the credulous in different eras and various regions, so nothing short of the power of transmitting water into wine, could produce from these vineyards the immense quantity of wine which passes under the title of hock. Certain it is, that the greater quantity of wine honored with that name, is from the grapes of both sides of the lower part of the Rhine, which, in the district where it is produced, very old genuine Hockheim wine is sold at the rate of three, and sometimes five, shillings a bottle.

At the first stage we stopped at a village where there is a noble building upon an eminence, commanding a beautiful prospect, which I at first took for a palace, but it proved to be a tobacco manufactory, warehouses, and the residence of the proprietor and his family; the front is five hundred feet long, and the whole exterior infinitely more princely than Buckingham-house. After passing this place the road became level, and the country presented corn-fields, pasture, and orchards in great abundance. For many miles round, this country had been often the theatre of hostilities; and though Nature had long since effaced their melancholy impressions from her fields by reviving verdure, yet prostrate cottages and battered convents displayed the march and ravages of the demon War! Happy, thrice happy my own country, where the sound of cannon

is never heard but to announce a victory, or to augment the gaiety of some festive occasion.

SUBURBS OF FRANKFORT.

The suburbs of Frankfort are very delightful, and after passing over a draw-bridge, and through a deep gate-way, we entered the city, the streets of which were crowded and full of gaiety and bustle, in consequence of the great autumnal fair which was holding there. All the best inns were brimful, and with great difficulty the Dutch officer and myself procured a miserable double-bedded room, at an inferior inn, filled with petty merchants and their families, whom the spirit of traffic had led to this celebrated mart, and was half choked up with cases and boxes containing their merchandize. This town swarms with French soldiers, about thirty of whom slept in rooms adjoining to ours, where they deported themselves with great order. My companion had just returned from the Cape; in consequence of its surrender to the British arms. He spoke with liberal rapture of the gallantry of the English troops. In Germany, as in Holland, time is taken by the forelock, and at six o'clock the stiefelputzer, or boot-cleaner, knocked at the door, followed by the chambermaid with a composition of frankincense and other gums of a pyramidal shape, and about an inch high, much used in Germany, called a Räucher-kerz for perfuming rooms, which she placed upon our candlestick and left smoking. My Dutch companion annoyed me at this hour, first by begging that I would hear him read one book of Milton's *Paradise Lost*, a little English edition of which he had in his pocket, which he achieved in an incongruous mélange of various languages; and secondly, by begging me to lend him my tooth-brush for a few minutes, observing, that he preferred an English tooth-brush to any other, and at the same moment applying it to his teeth with equal alacrity and gratification. After he had paid such a compliment to English tooth-brushes, and had done me the honour of using mine, the least I could do was to beg that he would favour me with keeping it for my sake, with which he was much pleased, and accordingly introduced it to a party of combs and razors in his shaving-case. In all other respects he was an agreeable man, and I am sure a liberal-minded soldier. This town, which was till lately imperial, is one of the most important towns in Germany, and has several handsome streets and noble buildings: it is particularly

celebrated for the splendor of its hotels, which are reported to be the most magnificent in Europe, particularly those called the *Rothern Haus* or Red House, and the *Rörmischen Kaiser* or Roman Emperor, where the King of Prussia lodged when he visited this town; and the *Darmstader Hof*, in which Marshal Angerau and his suite resided whilst I was at Frankfort: so crowded was the city, that it was with great difficulty and some interest I procured apartments at the *Weiden-hof*, or Willow-Court, a second rate inn, but of great magnitude. Our table d'hôte, at which between two and three hundred persons of respectability sat down every day, was held in a noble room; it was splendidly served, and an excellent band seated in an elevated gallery, performed during dinner. The principal houses are built of red and white stone: the casino, to which I was admitted by a card of introduction from one of the principal bankers, is very elegant. There are also several other clubs and assembly rooms. The theatre is spacious and very handsome, the performers were good, and the band is large and select. Opposite to the theatre is a mall, formed by several rows of trees, which in the evening is much frequented.

Before the Rhenish confederation the town was split into two religious sects, the Lutherans and Calvinists, which are now blended in perfect harmony by the liberal influence of toleration. A grand discharge of cannon one morning announced the ceremony of the members of the senate and the colleges being about to assemble in the *Römer*, or town-hall, to complete the investing the Prince Primate with the sovereignty of the city, the keys having been delivered up before to the representative of the prince, under a similar discharge of artillery, agreeable to certain provisions contained in the act of the Rhenish confederation.

Curiosity induced me to visit the place of this meeting, which is a very large and ancient gothic pile, situated in a narrow street. In this building are several chambers, which have been applied to memorable purposes; one in particular, which before the late revolution in the German empire, was used by the Electors upon the august occasion of making choice of a new Emperor: there are some good paintings in some of these apartments. The ceremony of the installation of the Prince Primate was over in a very short time; the mob, which was a small one, soon dispersed; and scarcely any one mentioned the matter three days afterwards.

The cathedral church of St. Bartholomew, which belongs to the catholics, is another venerable relic of antiquity: it is reported to have been built by Pepin, king of France, in 756, enriched by Charlemagne, and plundered by Lewis of Bavaria, on account of its chapter adhering to the Pope. Strange to relate, although the coronation of the emperor used to take place in it, there is not one object within its walls, either of sacred splendor, or monumental celebrity, worthy of notice. In the year 1792, when the French entered this city as conquerors, their commanding officers went with great military pomp to the cathedral; where, being attended by the senators, the commander in chief closed the address by exclaiming, "Under the roof of this venerable temple have not many of you witnessed the coronation of the Emperor of the Romans?" to which no answer was given. "I expected a reply to my question," exclaimed the general with some warmth; "yes" was faintly answered; "then," replied he, "you will never see him more in this place." This prophecy issued from an oracle which possessed the means of consummating its prediction.

I was pleased with the fair, although it fell far short of my expectation; the principal booths, which were erected near the Rômer, and also parallel with the river Main, formed a very agreeable and sprightly street, entirely covered with canvas awnings: here all sorts of goods, the productions of various parts of the globe, were exposed to sale; and here were also several booksellers' stalls, where the most eminent works are sold folded in sheets, for the purchase of lesser merchant in the trade. No press in the world is so prolific as the German--the numbers of ingenious works which it annually yields, amongst which are many able productions, are astonishing. I was informed that the fair had wasted almost to nothing, in consequence of the various injuries it had sustained from the war, and the severe policy of Bonaparte respecting the introduction of English manufacture, very little of which was to be found at this mart. In the printers' stalls, which used to be well supplied from the English school of engraving, were very few prints worthy of attention. I saw several execrable imitations of some from the exquisite pencil of Westall. At the end of the principal street of the fair, close to the river, were rows of immense tubs, in which, like Diogenes, many poor German tradesmen and their

families very sagaciously eat and slept, for want of a better habitation.

ACCOUNT OF OFFENBACH.

An excursion to the beautiful and elegant little sovereign town of Offenbach, about five English miles from Frankfort, enabled me to admire the great progress which the Germans have made in the useful art of carriage-building. In a very large depot of carriages there, I saw several which would have been distinguished for their lightness and beauty in London. There are several other fabrics, viz. of jewellery, pocket-books, tobacco-pipes, &c. The society of this place, where the prince who bears its name has a little court, is very refined and accomplished. The suburbs of Frankfort are formed of beautiful and romantic walks and vineyards enlivened by handsome country-houses. On the road near the entrance to the west, adjoining the splendid chateau of Mr. Beatham, the celebrated banker, at whose town-house the present King of Prussia became enamoured with his Queen, is a monument, composed of a helmet, a lion's skin, and emblems of war, in bronze, made out of the cannon taken by the King of Prussia from the French at Mayence, mounted upon a stone pedestal, rising from an artificial rock, upon which are inscriptions commemorative of its having been raised by Prince Williamstadt to the memory of the gallant Prince of Hesse-Philipssthal and three hundred brave Hessians who perished on this spot, when the French were obliged to evacuate the town in the year 1792. The French had taken quiet possession of it a few months before, under the command of General Neuwinger and Colonel Houchard, when they levied two millions of florins upon pain of military execution on the opulent classes of the inhabitants. The most distinguished personage in Frankfort was Mareschal Augereau, whom I frequently met. The heroic valour and skill which he displayed in the campaigns of Italy, particularly at the battle of Arcole and before Mantua, and afterwards in Germany, will render his name illustrious in the military annals of France: he is a highly polished and accomplished gentleman, and was equally admired and esteemed by the inhabitants of Frankfort: he lived in a style becoming his dignity, without ostentation, and was upon all occasions very accessible.

Linglebach, the celebrated painter, was born here in 1625. His subjects were fairs, mountebanks, sea pros-

pects, naval engagements, and landscapes, in which he eminently excelled. In company with my two friends from whom I parted at Rotterdam, and who rejoined me here, I set off for Darmstadt, about eighteen English miles from Frankfort. We crossed a noble bridge over the Main, and passed through a considerable, and fortified town, called Sachsenhausen. Our road, which was sandy, was for a considerable way lined with luxuriant nursery-grounds and vineyards. About four miles from Frankfort we passed a plain oaken post, about six feet high, upon which, under a painted star and crown, was written (in German), "Sovereign Territory of the Prince Primate of the Rhenish Confederation." Upon this road I saw for the first time, a great number of little posts, painted white and numbered; they are called minute-posts, by which the pedestrian traveller is enabled to ascertain with great exactness the progress he makes in his journey. A very handsome avenue of stately poplars, of nearly two English miles, forms the approach to the city, which is nearly surrounded by a lofty wall, not capable of affording much protection against an enemy. The Suburbs contain some handsome houses, in which, as the principal hotel in the city was full, we took up our quarters at the post-house, a very excellent inn.

DARMSTADT.

For a capital, Darmstadt is small, and its palace infinitely too large: of the latter the Emperor Joseph sarcastically observed, that it was big enough to accommodate himself and the nine electors. However, very little of the internal part is finished, and most of the windows are boarded up. The Grand Duke and his family reside in a part of a new palace, projecting from the old one, looking towards the gardens. That immense structure is built in imitation of the Tuilleries, and surrounded by a broad deep dry ditch. The hereditary Prince, who married the youngest daughter of the house of Baden, and whose sisters share the thrones of Russia and Sweden, has a large and handsome house at a little distance from the old palace; exclusive of this prince, his Royal Highness the Grand Duke, Louis the Tenth, has several other children. He is turned of fifty years of age, is an enlightened brave, and, amiable prince, and a celebrated engineer. He was the last of the German princes who in the last war sheathed the sword he had drawn against the French; a power

which the preservation of his dignity and his dominion counselled him to coalesce with. Bonaparte, when he was digesting the Rhenish Confederation, wished to invest him with the royal dignity, but the Grand Duke declined the offer. Darmstadt has produced many valiant and distinguished officers. At the parade I had the pleasure of seeing General Von Wernier, the governor of the city, who at the head of the *chevaux legers*, or light horse, performed prodigies of valour, in the Netherlands in the last war, where in one battle he was surrounded by seven French chasseurs, from whom he received the most desperate wounds in various parts of his body before he surrendered. The late General Von Lirring, a name, on account of the heroic courage of the person to whom it belonged, for ever embalmed in the memory of the English who served in the last war in the Low Countries, in the years 1793-5, was born in this duchy. The troops were good looking men, and presented a soldier-like appearance: the uniform of the officers of the infantry is a blue coat faced with scarlet, a large cocked hat richly trimmed with deep silver lace, and has a very handsome appearance. The dragoons wear a casquet, a light green jacket, and are well mounted. The pay of a soldier is about the value of twopence a day. Several captains in the army are princes (princes' appanages) or princes of a distant branch, who have but little property.

The principal object to attract the attention of a traveller is the *Exercierhaus*, or house for manœuvring the troops in the winter: it forms one side of the space of ground allotted for the parade, is three hundred and fourteen feet long, and one hundred and fifty-two broad, and has been erected about thirty-five years. The ceiling of this enormous room is self-supported by a vast and most ingenious wooden frame-work, without the assistance of either pillar or arch below. Above this ceiling are a great number of apartments. In a part of the room below, the artillery of the Grand Duke is deposited, which is kept in high military order. About four thousand troops can be manœuvred in this room with ease. The gardens adjoining to the exercise-house are laid out in the English style, are very spacious, and would be very beautiful if the ground undulated a little more; much taste has been displayed in their arrangement, and the house of the chief gardener is very pretty. These gardens are liberally opened to the public, form the principal promenade, and were embel-

lished on the day I visited them with several lovely and elegantly dressed women. In one part is a neat but simple mausoleum, erected by order of Frederick the Great to the memory of one of the landgravines of Darmstadt, a princess remarkable for the powers of her mind, and the beauty of her person: upon which is the following elegant inscription, composed by that Prince:

“Hic jacet Ludovic. Henricæ, Landgrafia Hessesæ,
“sexu fœmina, ingenio vir.”

“Here lies Louisa Henrietta, Landgravine of Hesse,
“a woman in form, in mind a man.”

A short distance from the garden is a park in which wild boars are kept for hunting. The religion of the duchy is Lutheran. The affairs of the state are conducted by a court of regency, and other courts, composed of counsellors and a president, who regulate the military, administer the laws, digest the finance, and superintend all matters that relate to religion. Those who complain of “the law’s delay” in England, would be speedily reconciled to the tardity of its progress were they to commence a suit in Germany, where it excited considerable surprize that the procrastination of Mr. Hastings’s trial, which lasted *seven years and three months*, should have caused any murmur amongst us, that period being thought a moderate one by almost every German. Living in this duchy is very cheap: a bachelor can keep a horse, dine at the first table d’hôte, and drink a bottle of wine a day, and mingle in the best circles, upon one hundred pounds per annum. The society in Darmstadt is very agreeable. As the minds of the men and women are so highly cultivated and accomplished in Germany, every party presents some mode or other, equally delightful and blameless, to make Time smile, and to strew over his passage with flowers. The country round Darmstadt, is very beautiful, and abounds with corn and various sorts of fruit-trees, which are frequently unprotected by any fence, and the common path winds through avenues of them. Amongst other delicious fruit, there is a red plumb called *zwetschen*, peculiar to the south of Germany, which grows in great richness and luxuriance in this duchy. As a proof of the profusion in which it grows, in one of my rambles with some friends, I met a boy laden with a basket filled of them, who sold us 100 for some

little pieces, amounting to a penny English; and the little rogue looked back with an arch smile as we separated, as if he had made a highly profitable bargain. As I was walking in the principal street with a friend of mine, I was struck with the following expression: "Look at that officer; would you believe it that with so fine a person, and a mind to correspond with it, he has received *two baskets?*" My surprise at the expression was dissolved by being informed, that when a lady refuses an offer of love, she sends the luckless lover a little basket as a token of her disinclination to receive his addresses.

Upon my return to Frankfort, part of the French army rushed in like a torrent on its way to give the Prussians battle. It had rained very hard all the day on which the advance guard entered; but every soldier, although covered with mud, and wet to the skin, went, or rather danced, singing merrily all the way, to the house where he was to be quartered. This city has been dreadfully drained at various times, by the immense number of French troops which have been billeted upon the inhabitants: at one time, they had fifty thousand to support, and to supply with various articles of subsistence for six months. Every house had a certain number billeted upon them, according to its size and the opulence of the family. Upon their march the French are as little encumbered as possible; in their way they compel the farmer, butcher, baker, &c. to furnish them with what they want, for which notes are given by the proper officers, if they have no cash, to the seller, according to the price agreed upon, which is generally a very fair one, and which the paymaster in the rear of the army discharges upon coming up.

As the gathering tempest prevented me from penetrating into the south of Germany beyond Darmstadt, I applied to M. Bacher, the French minister, for permission to return *pour changer* to Rotterdam, by the way of Brussels, Antwerp, &c. but the old, shrewd politician, in a very crabbed manner refused, and ordered me to keep on the right bank of the Rhine. Thus was I obliged to retrace my steps; however, it enabled me again to contemplate the sublime and beautiful scenes of the Rhine, which I did in a boat, the cabin and roof of which were crammed with passengers to various cities on different sides of the river: the wind was against us, but the stream was so strong, of which our boatmen availed themselves by placing the vessel transversely, and, without rowing or towing, in two

days and a half we bade adieu to our voyageurs, a little before we reached Cologne, where we landed at Denitz, and retraced our steps, which enabled me here and there to correct errors and supply omissions. At Wesel we arrived at half past six o'clock in the evening, and found the gates shut, which compelled us to sleep upon straw at a little inn in the suburbs. At six the next morning, we beheld a sad massacre perpetrated by the engineers and soldiers of the garrison, upon all the trees in the neighbourhood that could conceal or assist an enemy in approaching the town, and for a similar reason several houses in the suburbs were marked for destruction. Such is the commencement of the horrors of war! The Prussians were expected to lay siege to this strongly fortified town in a few days, which induced the Grand Duke of Berg, who was in the citadel at the time, to have recourse to these severe preparations.

After pursuing our route through Amsterdam, where the great fair was holding, during which the Dutch character became absolutely lively, through Leyden and Rotterdam, at the last of which we were sadly annoyed about our necessary passports of departure, which require the signature of the King's secretary at the Hague, and the countersign of a Dutch commissioner, appointed during my absence, for such purpose at Rotterdam, in consequence of the French ambassador's power over such matters having been withdrawn, we at length, like hunted hares, arrived at the spot from whence we started, viz. Maesland-sluis, where, after undergoing the vexation of more forms and ceremonies before our old friend the commodore, on board of his guard-ship, we embarked in the identical dismal galliot which brought us to Holland, and after expecting every moment an order of embargo, we got out to sea, where we endured no common misery for six days and nights, after which I landed again upon my beloved native country.

This is Mr. Carr's conclusion of his interesting volume. After the ample analysis which we have given of it, any remarks of a critical nature would be superfluous. The singular enterprise, that of travelling in an enemy's country under an assumed character, the risks of detection which he encountered, and the great variety of information which he has on this occasion laid before the public, all tend to enhance his literary reputation, and to place him amongst the best informed, and most entertaining of modern tourists.

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STATE OF FRANCE.

State of France during the Years 1802, 1803, 1804, 1805; and 1806; comprising a Description of the Customs and Manners of that Country, together with Observations on its Government, Finances, Population, Agriculture, Religion, Public Schools, Conduct towards English Prisoners, and Internal Commerce. To which are added, Anecdotes tending to delineate the Character of the Chief of the French Government. By T. WILLIAMS, Esq. 2 vol. small 8vo. pp. 420. Price 12s. PHILLIPS, 1807.

WHEN the observation of all Europe is fixed upon any particular nation, from the adventitious success with which its arms and its political projects have been attended, all authenticated accounts of such a country are perused with an eagerness and interest that seldom attach to temporary publications.—The Author before us has had most ample opportunities of acquiring, with correctness, the information which he communicates. He is the gentleman who was detained three years in France by that atrocious act of NAPOLEON, which rendered all British visitors in a state of imprisonment; and we also find, that Mr. WILLIAMS is the person who was indebted for his liberty to the influence of the celebrated Dr. JENNER.

Although, as the author most candidly admits, the subject on which he treats is of the greatest importance, yet some small allowances must be made for the feelings under which he may be supposed to have filtered upon it, having suffered a captivity of three years: he, however, professes to speak of the country on a broad scale, and allows that there may be numerous exceptions from his general delineation of the French character.

The work is written in a series of letters; a way which many readers prefer to the continuous narrative. From the first letter it appears that the author set off from Southampton in June, 1802, on a journey of pleasure, through a part of France, and went unaccompanied, not being able to persuade a friend or two, on whom he had fixed, to join

him. To one of these friends the following series of communications is addressed :

Rouen, June 19, 1802.

It was my intention to give you a description of my voyage, as soon as I had set foot in the French Republic; but on my arrival at Havre-de-Grace, I found it absolutely necessary to make so many arrangements within a short period, that I postponed it till I should reach this place. I can easily conceive what astonishment you will feel on the mention of these *important* arrangements, but I think the wonder will cease when they are laid before you somewhat in detail. First then, in consequence of my having had little or no sleep on board the packet during the two preceding nights, I felt, after making a hearty breakfast *à la Française*, a strong inclination to take possession of a bed that appeared, very invitingly, close to the table on which we had taken our refreshment. I know your English ideas will not exactly coincide with those which the inhabitants of this country entertain, respecting the situation where they most frequently make their first daily meal; and I confess that so much national prejudice still remains in my composition, and when I am obliged to follow their customs in this respect, nothing but a free circulation of air can in the slightest degree reconcile me to it. After having revived myself with a comfortable nap, and partly succeeded in driving out of my head the sensation of the ship's motion, my next concern was to get my trunks passed through the custom-house: and here I must pause to recommend a lesson to those gentlemen who exercise the corresponding functions on the British side of the Channel; confident that, if they were to shew the same attention to foreigners as I received from the French revenue-officers at Havre, our nation would be less subject to the accusation of a certain brutality of manners, for which they are at present famous throughout the Continent.

These pressing concerns being dispatched, another occurred which, in the eyes of most travellers, appears peculiarly interesting; the delivery of a letter of introduction and credit to a banker. This then was my next care. If all together are not sufficient excuses for my postponing to write till I arrived here, you must allow me to add, that the fatigue of the voyage, the swimming in my head, produced from the motion of the vessel, and the sudden transition from English manners to manners totally the reverse, produced such

a confusion in my mind, that it was impossible to collect my ideas sufficiently to compose a letter, which might at all pass for being written by a man in his senses.

Having endeavoured to make my peace for not immediately relieving your mind from some little anxiety that I am aware it entertained concerning my crossing the Channel, I will do what I can to make you amends by an ample detail of my voyage. My last concluded by informing you that the captain of the packet-boat began to grow very impatient for our departure from Southampton. As I was the last person to go on board previous to our sailing, I complied with his wishes the moment I had concluded my letter to you; and about three o'clock we were under way. Being a very bad seaman, I remained all night wrapped up in a sail on the deck; and, hard as I found my bed, I verily believe that sleep would have closed my eye-lids, had it not been for the snoring of a fat monk, who, notwithstanding his uncertainty respecting the fate which awaited him in France after an absence of eleven years, ate, drank, and slept, like a pig, the whole voyage. I was therefore obliged to console myself by contemplating, surely, the finest moon-light tranquil night that was ever sent from heaven to soothe a sleepless mortal. The whole of the next day we scarcely moved through the water; till at length a nice breeze sprung up about eight in the evening, and brought us into Havre road at midnight. In consequence of the lateness of the hour, we were not permitted to land before the morning; when we received permission from the custom-house to go on shore. The entrance into the road was extremely fine, there being a great number of ships round us: the beacon on our left added much to the picturesque appearance of the scene; while the coast of Nonpandy at a distance, and the pier immediately on our right, formed a semi-circle truly pleasing to the eye. I learnt that two gentlemen on board the packet were going to Rouen; and as it is a much pleasanter method of travelling, to be one in a party of three in a post-chaise, than of half a dozen in the diligence, I readily accepted the proposal of joining them. We therefore agreed, after allotting the greater part of the day to seeing every thing worth observation at Havre, to proceed on our journey the following morning.

There is very little to arrest the attention of the traveller in that place, except a fine basin which is on the point of being completed for receiving an additional number of vessels to load in; a work which will do honour to the

nation. The town itself has a most miserable appearance; the streets being extremely narrow, and the houses very high and badly finished. I went into the principal church, which bears the appearance of extreme poverty; as, during the late revolutions, the citizens have been *improys* enough to imagine that all their silver saints would be more useful if melted down to pieces of six livres, and that their bells would *ring* better in the shape of gro-sols.

At five o'clock on Friday morning we started from Havre, on our road to the place, from which I date this; and were very much pleased at the commencement of our travels, till we reached Harfleur, a small town about three leagues on our way. On the right of our route, we had the most beautifully extensive view of the Seine, bounded, by the coast of Lower Normandy, including Harfleur: a fertile tract of country lies between the road and that fine river, while on the left a gentle declivity is covered with gentlemen's seats and gardens. Every moment there was something to call forth an exclamation from each of the party: and notwithstanding the keenness of our appetites, we were much amused till our arrival at Bolbec; another small town, about three stages and a half from Havre.

The entrance into Bolbec is very picturesque, as we pass through a sort of ravine which is extremely romantic. During our breakfast at this place, we were waited upon by a most lively French girl, whose vivacity and freedom of manner greatly surprised our English companion, it being his first visit to this country. In no respect do the French differ from us so widely as in the treatment of their servants; for though it very rarely occurs in England that a master is accused of using a domestic with cruelty, yet we are far from permitting that familiarity which is constantly found here between the head of a family and his attendants.

From Bolbec we proceeded to Yvetot, where we dined. On the road we passed over a fine champaign country in a high state of cultivation, and affording the full promise of a most abundant harvest. A melancholy sensation is produced by contemplating the number of gentlemen's seats now in ruins, which are passed on this road; formerly the property of those who were obliged to forsake their country, or who have become the victims of the guillotine: and this sensation is still augmented by beholding what was formerly the abode of munificence and hospitality, now occupied by a labourer, or perhaps the residence of

an *artiste en briques*.* We also passed a convent which is now a part of the national domains, and inhabited by a farmer who rents the land about it. Without incurring the risk of being accused of irreligion, we may safely conclude that its present occupier is as worthy a member of society as was many a one of his idle predecessors.

The road from Yvetot to Rouen is not particularly interesting till we reach Maromme, the valley of which is exceedingly beautiful; it recalled to my mind scenes which I had beheld in South Wales. If we had arrived a little sooner in the neighbourhood, our view of the country would have been considerably more extended; but our loss was amply compensated by a tint of sombre red, which the departure of the sun had thrown over the surrounding objects. It is impossible to conceive the number of country-houses which embellish this charming spot; as it appears to be the ambition of every person engaged in commercial pursuits in the city, to have a place where he may breathe the pure air of so delightful a valley. We arrived here about nine o'clock, very much pleased with our entrance into this place, yet somewhat fatigued, and possessing a strong inclination for our supper.

Paris, July 23, 1802.

We reached the capital yesterday evening, after passing through a most delightful country; a description of which you shall receive in due order, after being made acquainted with the town and its environs whence my last letter was dated.

The same picture which I sent you of Havre-de-Grace will be tolerably faithful in some points with respect to Rouen; as there was very little attention paid at its foundation, either to the width of its streets or the regularity of its houses. The place however has been much improved of late years, by two beautiful rows of trees on each side of a road that nearly surrounds it; an advantage the more felt by its inhabitants, as this was formerly the site of a ditch which added very little to the safety, and much less to the salubrity of its inclosure. Though I am not an advocate for the preservation of relics, nor could ever reconcile myself to the superstition which so powerfully reigned in the *ci-devant* Gallican church, I own that on entering the venerable cathedral of Rouen, I felt a sensation of anger and

* *Brick-maker*, literally an *artist in bricks*; in France, even the shoe-blacks call themselves *artists*.

commiseration at beholding the ravages which had been committed by the villains who were at the head of affairs during the sanguinary reign of Robespierre. Its architectural symmetry they fortunately could not easily destroy, otherwise this would certainly have met with the same fate as the superb paintings and costly ornaments for which the edifice was formerly so celebrated. The cathedral was distinguished also for a bell called Georges d'Amboise, which occupied a tower built from emoluments produced by the sale of indulgences granting the permission to *eat butter in Lent*. This famous bell (the largest in France), and a very extensive set of musical chimes, have met with a similar fate the bells of Havre, and others in the republic. The pilferers, I believe, had the modesty to leave one bell in each of the churches; but this condescension was not the effect of a religious principle; as their places of public worship were, till the establishment of the consulate, either occupied by troops, or wholly closed; and the bell was left to sound the tocsin to the horrors of their diabolical system of murder.

The other edifices worthy of attention in Rouen, are, the church called St. Ouen, which is a noble monument of Gothic architecture; the old palace; an ancient edifice in the *Place de la Pucelle*, on which we perceive, in *bas-relief*, the meeting of Francis I. and our Henry VIII.; the *palais de justice*, the custom-house, the change, the *chambre des comptes*, and the different market-places.

You have doubtless heard of the bridge of boats which connects the two banks of the Seine at Rouen. I need not say that so singular an object excited much of my curiosity, and became the first to which I paid a visit after my arrival there. It consists of boats about the size of the coal-barges on the Thames, fastened together with chains; and the road over them is actually *paved*, so that carriages pass with the greatest safety. This idea was suggested in consequence of the river's being subject to great floods, which had previously carried away a bridge of stone. The present communication is still often impeded in the winter; as the people are obliged to open a passage for the ice, which otherwise would destroy the boats. This bridge was erected in the year 1626.

It the course of my rambles through the town of Rouen, chance conducted me to a square in which I could not help blushing for the credulity of my countrymen; it was the spot where they sacrificed the Maid of Orleans, Joan of

Are, from whom it is named.* After examining the statue erected to her memory, and to perpetuate the cruelty of *Messieurs les Anglais*, I hurried from the place with (I need not add) sensations far from enviable, sensations which are very natural for every Englishman to feel on seeing this monument of the superstition and cruelty of the nation to which he belongs.

Here is also a miraculqus well, which (it was pretended) sprung up on the very spot where the Maid was burnt, immediately after the execution; but *unfortunately* it came some minutes too late to extinguish the fire, and prevent such a horrid catastrophe.

The inhabitants of Rouen, more particularly the merchants, have suffered greatly by the revolution. These latter, to which class the principal inhabitants belong, have had, in addition, to encounter the difficulties of a war that has nearly annihilated their commerce; the port now, however, begins to bear the appearance of returning prosperity, and promises an ample recompence to the industrious inhabitants.

In consequence of my two fellow-travellers being obliged to depart for Paris before I had satisfied my curiosity in Rouen, I suffered them to proceed without me; and did not resume my journey till the 21st instant, with the intention of meeting them again in the metropolis. And now, my dear friend, I cannot sufficiently lament my inability to describe, either with my pencil or my pen, the beautiful scenery which perpetually presented itself, as I traversed the banks of the Seine till I reached this great city. To enumerate each individual spot where I was delighted by the prospect, would be an endless task; for no sooner had I recovered from the sensation produced by one charming view, than another and another produced the same effect in rapid succession. I cannot, however, omit to mention the soft scenery from Gaillon to Vernon, the bridge of which latter place offers a fine subject to the painter on entering the town.

There is nothing particularly remarkable on leaving Vernon, till we reach a small village called *Ramboise*, the descent into which forms a most beautiful *coup d'œil* of the scene. The surrounding country is covered with vines, which are so much destroyed by the cold winds that there is not the smallest prospect of their yielding any fruit this

* *La Place de la Pucelle* (the Maid's Square).

year; and it is miserable to see the cultivators of them, who even in the best seasons are poor, toiling at the plants, which require as much labour as when their branches are loaded with fruit. Hardy must that race of people be who can endure such fatigue, with hunger staring them in the face!

But let me condole you from the contemplation of such wretchedness, through the beautiful valley of Triel: where we discern corn-fields, gardens, and vineyards; on a gentle declivity, till they reach the banks of the Seine on one side; while on the other there is the richest and most extensive valley that I ever beheld. As I pursued my journey, the sun was so powerful, that the heat became almost insupportable: there was not a cloud to be seen in the atmosphere; a circumstance which, added to the nature of the country, brought to my mind the Italian landscapes which I had so often contemplated, with rapture in England, and the originals of which I have so much wished to visit.

The entrance from St. Germain into Paris is extremely grand; as the road is lined for a considerable distance with rows of trees which terminate in the *Place de Louis XV.* now *Place de la Revolution*, in front of which we observe the magnificent palace and gardens of the Tuilleries. The whole spectacle is so striking, that one cannot but form at once a strong idea of the splendor of Paris; but this illusion is completely dissipated the moment one beholds the narrowness of its streets, the want of accommodation for those who are obliged to walk through them, and the uncleanness perceptible in the generality of its inhabitants.

Paris, June 29, 1802.

I have now resided a week in this interesting metropolis, which abounds in subjects worthy the attention of a foreigner. I cannot but regret my not having visited the scene previously to the many revolutions which it has witnessed during the last ten years; as the comparison with its present state, though in many instances painful, must have been greatly productive of information to any one travelling for the purpose of studying mankind. Much as I have been amused during my rambles through this place, yet there was scarcely a step which I took that did not recal to my mind a transaction reflecting little honour on the French nation: but when, from the centre of the *Place de la Revolution*, I was admiring the beautiful objects which surrounded me, and was told that the very spot on which I stood

was stained with the streams of blood shed by order of those sanguinary wretches who governed France during the reign of terror, I felt a mixture of indignation and horror not to be described:—horror in reflecting that so much cruelty could exist in this enlightened period; and indignation at a people who, while they were bravely combating the external enemies of their country, could tamely suffer themselves to be butchered by a horde of monsters. This square is in front of the palace of the Tuilleries; the building of which was commenced in 1564, by Catherine of Medicis, from the design of Philibert de Lorme: it was continued by Henry IV.; and finished in the reign of Lewis XIV. from the designs of Leveau and Dorbay. Though it forms a medley of architecture, the whole together is extremely magnificent.

My next visit was to see the *Chateau du Louvre*; the foundation of which was laid in the time of Francis I. about the year 1528. Henry II. his son, continued it, from the design of Pierre Lescot; and with the assistance of Jean Gougeon, who executed the sculpture. The great gallery which joins the Louvre to the Tuilleries, was completed under Charles IX. Henry IV. Lewis XIII. and his successor. It was during the fertile reign of this last monarch, that the new Louvre was finished; including the magnificent *façade* which fronts Saint Germain l'Auxerrois, of which Claude Perrault was the architect.

The palace of Luxembourg now claimed my attention; as well as the gardens, which have recently undergone great alterations. This palace was commenced in 1615, by order of Mary of Medicis, from the design of Jacques des Brosses.

After viewing the Luxembourg, I proceeded to the Palace of the Tribunal, formerly Palace Royal, which was commenced by order of cardinal Richelieu in 1629. It passed into the hands of Lewis XIII. and Lewis XIV. and became by inheritance the property of the duke of Orleans, who suffered so justly for his crimes by the hands of the executioner. The garden in front is newly planted; and the buildings which surround it contain every thing that can excite the curiosity of the stranger, or provoke the appetite of the voluptuary. The arched way which encompasses this garden, consists of shops of every description, which receive light from a hundred and eighty arcades. It is frequented by people of every situation in life, and of every nation; and toward the evening, by an immense number of

females who make a traffic of their charms. Nothing can exceed the medley to be met with in this walk; and the stranger is obliged frequently to repeat his visit to the busy scene, before he gets the better of the astonishment which it excites in his mind.

The Palace of Justice is particularly worth notice. Its origin cannot be traced: it suffered twice by fire, once in 1618, and the second time in 1726: but was rebuilt, however, by order of Lewis XVI. from a design of Desmaisons.

The Bourbon Palace, now Palace of the Legislative Body, was commenced in 1792, from the designs of Girardin and Lassurancé, and finished by Jacques Gabriel. It highly merits observation.

The cathedral of Notre Dame is so celebrated, that I need only mention its being built on the ruins of a temple constructed in the reign of Tiberius, about the year 365. Clovis, and Robert the Pious, repaired it; and Philip Augustus completed it in the year 1185. It is considered as one of the largest edifices in Europe.

The School for Surgery is a building worthy of attention. It was commenced under Lewis XV. and finished by Lewis XVI.

The cupola of the *Halle au Blé** is remarkably curious. It was designed by Philibert de Lorme, in the reign of Henry II. and executed by Legrand and Molinos. The column on the outside was much frequented, as an observatory, by Catherine of Medicis. This observatory also should not pass unnoticed.

My next visit was to see the collection of statues and pictures which the French, with how much justice I will not mention, have acquired during the progress of their arms in Italy and Flanders; and such a collection is certainly not to be met with elsewhere in the world. To describe to you minutely all its merits, would require powers that I do not possess; and for which, I presume, you are not sorry: I shall therefore content myself with saying, that the two statues which most particularly arrested my attention, were the Apollo of Belvidere, and Venus leaving the Bath. It is very much the fashion to admire the Dying Gladiator, and the group of Laocoon and his two Children devoured by Serpents: they are, most assuredly, finely executed; but still you will not be astonished at my

* Hall of the corn-market.

giving my suffrage to the beautiful Goddess just rising from the water.

At the *Jardin des Plantes* * there is the best arranged selection of minerals, fossils, and preserved animals, that I ever saw. I possibly might have met a greater variety in the British Museum; but it certainly cannot vie with this national institution, in point of preservation and order. The National Library, the most valuable perhaps in the world, is on a very extensive scale; and is open three times a week to all persons without exception, a circumstance which must contribute greatly to the general diffusion of knowledge throughout the nation. There is also, under the same roof, an excellent collection of coins and medals; with another of prints, which is of the same unreserved access as the Library, for the benefit of students. I am extremely pleased in examining a collection of monuments which have been brought together at a great expence, and deposited in what was lately a convent of the Minor Augustins. They are extremely well arranged, and occupy seven or eight large apartments besides a garden; each apartment indicating a different century as the date of the original erection of the tombs which it contains. Too much praise cannot be bestowed on M. Le Noir, who first suggested this idea, and who has still the management of the undertaking; as he has restored these fine pieces of sculpture to nearly their primitive splendour, notwithstanding the ravages which they have undergone from the race of modern Goths, who so lately infested this country.

The *Hôtel des Invalides*, † projected by Henry IV. and executed by Bruant and Mansard, is a building well worth the attention of strangers; as, exclusive of the interest which it creates as an asylum for those who have bravely fought the battles of their country, that part of the building which was formerly a chapel, but is now converted into a receptacle for trophies, gained during the war, forms an object truly enchanting. The idea is well conceived, for surely nothing can be more grateful to those veterans than to contemplate such convincing proofs of their children having profited by the lessons which they gave them in the art of war. Among the numerous collection of standards taken from the enemy, I perceived two which formerly belonged to the British nation; a circumstance rather galling to the feelings of an Englishman, till I reflected that we could produce hun-

* Botanical Garden. † Hospital of the Invalids.

dreds of tricoloured flags in return. The dome of this building is extremely fine, and nothing can exceed the beauty of the marble pavement; but with all its charms, a person who knew its value had the greatest difficulty to preserve the latter from the jacobinical ravagers, who wished to break it into a thousand pieces, because it represented the arms of France.

The Pantheon, destined to receive the relics of the great men of France, (commenced under Lewis XV. who laid the first stone, September 4, 1764.) will be, if it is ever finished, a most magnificent structure. At present it contains merely the remains of J. J. Rousseau and Voltaire. I presume the French nation, by placing these two great characters so close to each other, were determined that, *either dead or alive*, they should be on good terms: and this design seems to have succeeded; for they are now very near neighbours, yet refrain from mutual abuse, an agreement which seldom happened during their mortal career. The Parisians had also erected a monument in this place to receive the *worthy* remains of Marat; but have very properly shewn their abhorrence of his principles, by destroying the tomb, and throwing his body on a dunghill. Who knows but at some future period, should monarchy be restored in France, Voltaire and Rousseau may share the same fate.

There is a very good collection of paintings by Vernet, of the principal seaports of France, in a magnificent building in the Square of Louis XV. formerly destined for the *garde-meubles*.* In the same room too is a representation of the capture of the *Ambuscade* frigate from the English (which the person who explained the different pictures, was particularly anxious that I should examine); with various models of ships.

You will now naturally expect me to give you some information respecting the French theatres, and I should be very happy if I could fully comply with your wishes on the subject; but as I am not sufficiently acquainted with the language to be a competent judge of the merits of the actors, you must content yourself with a bare description of the decorations. The principal theatres, which are the *Comédie Française* and *Trudeau*, are spoilt by an attempt to imitate the Roman amphitheatre. This has a good effect from the stage; but as the comfort of the audience ought

* Royal Warehouse.

to be consulted in preference to the eye of the actors; I must be allowed to disapprove the plan. Every box has on each side a large pillar, which so completely intercepts the view of those who sit behind (except in the front boxes), that they see no more of the performers than if they were at Constantinople. The *Théâtres de Louvois* and the Italian Opera are better constructed, and infinitely more clean, than the two before-mentioned, which certainly are somewhat dingy.

In my opinion, the French ballet is certainly far superior to any thing of the kind in England. It is represented in the *Théâtre des Arts*, in which there is singing also; the vocal performers appear, however, to have such a rage for exerting their voices beyond the natural pitch, that it often produces the most painful sensation imaginable to the ear, and may be called any thing but harmony. The scene-shifters are infinitely more expert here than ours in England; and there is so much more depth in the stage than we have at the King's Theatre in the Haymarket, that the effect is often wonderful: but on the other hand, the opera-pit or boxes of the French cannot vie with ours in brilliancy.

I have thus given you a hasty sketch of the different objects which have fully occupied me since I have been here; but many months, and not merely a single week, are requisite to give them all the attention which they merit.

Paris, July 20, 1802.

I was present at the fête in commemoration of the celebrated 14th of July. The review took place in the Square of the Carouzel, in which were assembled about twelve thousand of the finest troops which France can produce. As soon as they were drawn up in a line, the First Consul made his appearance, attended by a numerous train of aides-de-camps, &c.: among others was his favourite Mameluke, who followed his fortunes from Egypt. After passing in front of each regiment, Buonaparte distributed prizes of honour to the different soldiers who had distinguished themselves during the war: they then marched past him, and returned to their different quarters. The spectacle was truly beautiful in the aggregate; and particularly the corps of Mamelukes in the costume of their country, added much to the brilliancy of it. On my remarking the absurdity of forming these Egyptians into a corps, I was told that the principal view of the First Consul

in adopting this measure, was the probable utility in his next invasion of that country. I hope he will have a better reason for making his *second* attempt, than he had for attacking the *first* time a country in perfect amity with France.

I had a good view of Buonaparte on the Carouzel, and also the next evening at the opera; and I think there is as little of the hero displayed in his physiognomy, as in that of any man of distinction whom I ever saw. There is a great deal of pensive cunning (if I may be allowed the epithet) pictured in his eye; and, with *great deference* to such an exalted character, something of the assassin. During the whole time that I sat opposite to him at the opera, I looked in vain for a smile on his countenance: there certainly was an *extension of the mouth* when the people applauded him on his entrance; but it contained such a mixture of distrust, that it did not appear to issue from the bottom of his heart.

In the evening there was a concert in the garden of the Tuilleries, for the amusement of the *sovereign people*, and illuminations at the expence of government in the different squares; but these are, however, given so often, that even the Parisians begin to grow tired of them; and many of the more rational think with myself, that it is extreme folly on the part of government, thus to expend the money that might be employed to much better purpose.

The First Consul has certainly many enemies at Paris; but in consequence of restoring tranquillity and religion throughout the republic, he is much esteemed in many of the departments. The word, "liberty" appears to be all he has left to the people of that possession: but in doing this he shews a great knowledge of the national character; and indeed, when we reflect on the horrid abuses which they have made of it during the last ten years, it is impossible not to agree with him, that France is a nation adapted for no other than an absolute government.

The people of this country, having suffered so much by such a succession of revolutions, appear to be quite in a state of apathy as to what government is given them, provided they may enjoy quiet. Buonaparte has taken advantage of this disposition; and has modelled the present (about their *fifth* or their *fiftieth*) constitution, according to his own ideas of what is best adapted to the nation whom he governs. How far he has succeeded, posterity must judge; but if his reign should be durable, I think him

capable of rendering France, if not free, at least powerful beyond example.

In order to shew you the arbitrary system that prevails, I have only to communicate an anecdote which I received from undoubted authority. A very handsome young man in the army, the intimate acquaintance of a particular friend of mine, succeeded in gaining the good opinion of a beautiful actress, for whose heart Lucien Buonaparte was also a candidate. The consequence, that the former received an order from the minister of the police to go immediately to Brest, there to embark to join the troops in the West Indies. He was under the necessity of obeying this summons: but fortunately, on his arrival at Brest, the ship destined to take him on board was not ready; and in the mean time great interest being made in his behalf at Paris, the order was recalled. It is unnecessary for me to make any comments on the above.

I paid a visit, some few days since, to G—, whom I believe you know: he has got into a serious trouble, being detained here as a state-prisoner in a sort of Bastile, called St. Pelagic. I had seen very little of him in England; but knowing his brother, and finding a countryman in such an unpleasant situation, I procured after some difficulty, permission to see him in confinement. You must remember his wild scheme of joining the royalists in La Vendée: from them he received a company, and was appointed aide-de-camp to one of their chiefs. This way of life he continued till a superior republican force obliged the royalists, who had so bravely fought in defence of their king and their religion, to capitulate: a general amnesty was the condition; and as G— called himself a Frenchman, he was permitted to remain in Paris unmolested. It was natural that his principal society there should consist of the royalist party; in consequence of which, when it was discovered that this party were the contrivers of the plot of the Infernal Machine, G— was arrested with his friends, and has now been closely confined eighteen months without a trial. He has often written to the minister of police, requesting that either his innocence or guilt might be brought to proof; but has received no answer. Our minister also has claimed him since the peace, as a British subject; but all that he could obtain in return, was G—'s signature styling himself one of the royalist army. I have had a long conversation with our minister concerning him; and as the former seems much interested in his fate, and has promised to use his utmost for inducing his government

to apply in strong terms for his release, I hope G—— will shortly be set at liberty.

It was generally imagined that on the fourteenth, Buonaparte would have been proclaimed Consul for life: but now I understand that this is to be postponed till his birth-day, which takes place next month; in consequence of which there is to be another fête, that is considerably to exceed the one of which I have just given you a description. How frivolous must a nation be, who can be governed and amused with such nonsense!

Many of our countrymen were presented to the chief magistrate of the republic, and were all most graciously received by the man who is known to hate us cordially. Few are more capable than himself of disguising their sensations; or, if we may believe report, of penetrating into the designs of others.

Paris, Aug. 10, 1802.

I have not hitherto sent you any observations on the present state of society at Paris, as you may conceive that a residence of two months among a people cannot furnish me with perfectly correct ideas on the subject. I understand, however, this has now become a favourite topic of conversation in England; and should therefore feel myself deficient, were I longer to defer sending you what I have been able to collect concerning it.

To begin externally. In their dress the men are imitating us as much as they can, in which they succeed tolerably well in the evening; but have such a beastly habit of coming down to breakfast in a loose great coat, a dirty shirt, and unshaved chin, that it will require a long time before they can make good their pretensions to the cleanliness of an Englishman. The women are little superior to them in this respect: in the frequent use of the bath, however, they might perhaps give a lesson to our British ladies.

The principal society consists of such merchants and bankers as have been able to weather the revolutionary storms, of the emigrant noblemen who have been permitted to return to their country, and of people who have made rapid fortunes in taking advantage of the general devastation: to these may be added the generals who have enriched themselves by levying contributions on the conquered countries. From the first of the above classes, having it most in their power, foreigners receive the greatest civility; but as they have generally an interest in their attentions to us, I believe we must not impute this to genuine hospitality. Most of them have a country-house in the neighbourhood

of the metropolis, to which they retire from the fatigues of commerce on Saturday, till the following Monday: the intervening day is generally allotted to the reception of strangers, and on this occasion they vie with each other in the magnificence of their repasts.

The second class, though much reduced in their circumstances, are still considered with respect, and looked up to as models of good breeding. During the last five years, republican ferocity usurped the place of polished manners, and a savage behaviour was adopted instead of that politeness for which the French were formerly so justly celebrated; but as tranquillity returns, brutality of manners gradually ceases, and the nobility seem to have brought back that urbanity which fled with them into foreign lands.

The third class are people without either principles or manners; who affect the character of gentlemen, without having the only means of becoming such, a good education. They endeavour, by unusual magnificence, to dazzle their neighbours, who, however, cannot forget that they originally sprung from a dunghill.

The fourth class consists of men who have pillaged the countries that were so unfortunate as either to make a fruitless resistance to their arms, or to place themselves under their protection: they have mostly risen from the ranks, and consequently are not men of education or general intelligence. The majority look with an eye of jealousy on the fortunes of the First Consul; but wisely refrain from expressing their feelings too publicly, concerning one who has it in his power to do them so much mischief.

Respecting the female part of the inhabitants of the republic, they still are, what they ever have been, very much on their good behaviour previous to matrimony, for which restraint they make full amends afterwards; giving way then to the vilest coquetry (to call it by no harsher term) that can be conceived by one who has never lived among them. In their conversation, however, they are lively, pleasant, and, in many instances, well informed; though the generality of them wish, by very superficial knowledge, to make their hearers believe them much better read than they really are. I would therefore choose them rather as an amusement for my early years, than companions for my future days; and while I pay this tribute to these agreeable foreigners, I cannot refrain from giving the permanent palm to the virtues of my fair countrywomen.

Too much censure cannot be passed on that liberty (or

rather licentiousness) of speech, which is so generally adopted in France by men of every description in the society of females. This will ever be the case in a country where a *bon-mot* is a justification for the utmost indecency of expression, and where the lowest ribaldry is no prevention to telling a story that has some point. Such conversation is not only listened to, but in many instances encouraged, by the French women; and often serves as a *lesson* to the younger female branches of the family. Before I take leave of the sex, I must do them the justice to say, that during the last ten years, they have displayed, on many occasions, a courage and a goodness of heart truly heroic: sacrificing every comfort to relieve the miseries of a relation in prison; and braving the risk of being included in the number about to suffer, in order to save a parent from the hands of the executioner.

In no nation on earth do the women enjoy more liberty than in France, I mean the married women; as they generally have their own plans of amusement, while the husband finds his away from the bosom of his family. We therefore rarely find here that domestic comfort so often to be met with in our own. A circumstance which appears singular to an Englishman, is that of the husband's never giving his arm to his wife in public; and if I may judge of others by myself, we feel ourselves very awkward at pulling on the lady's glove, or assisting her at her toilet. These, however, are all necessary accomplishments to those who wish to be well received by *madame*: and as I never wish to be the last in attentions to the fairer part of the creation, I have with some difficulty become quite a proficient in the art; though I always put up a silent prayer, that none of my English friends may catch me in the frivolous occupation.

Respecting the amusements to be met with in this place, considering them as means which are of the utmost importance in forming a good or bad society, I may venture to say that since the destruction of Sodom, there never existed a town so highly calculated to corrupt the morals of the people. I believe no one of my acquaintance will give me the character of a cynic; but I assure you that the description which I have heard of the scenes of dissipation so universal at Paris, could not be listened to without a strong sensation of horror. It will ever be found, that where large societies are formed, there will also exist more frequent scenes of dissipation than are to be met in the

more retired walks of life; but when we hear of the most unnatural crimes being committed at every corner of the streets with impunity, we only wonder that the punishments which have formerly been inflicted on them are not continued by the hand of heaven.

I have thus endeavoured to give you an imperfect sketch of the people with whom I am now living; but as my stay among them will be of some duration, and a more perfect knowledge of them will naturally ensue, it is probable that I may find the ideas which I have now formed in some instances erroneous. I have therefore only to promise you, that as these change, you shall certainly be made acquainted with the circumstance.

Paris, Aug. 18, 1802.

Since writing any last, I have paid a visit to the palace of Versailles, which has all the remains of the ancient magnificence for which its court was formerly so renowned. The only sensation which its appearance now creates in the breast of the spectator, is that of the instability of human grandeur, as a death-like gloom prevails in every aspect of the building.

Versailles, before the revolution, contained eighty thousand inhabitants: the extent of its population now does not exceed twenty-five thousand. It was formerly a miserable village, till Lewis XIII. built a hunting-seat here, for the convenience of sporting in the neighbouring forests. Lewis XIV. was afterward much pleased with the spot, and raised the enormous pile which forms the *château*; from that moment Versailles dated her prosperity. The palace and gardens were commenced in 1673, and finished in 1680, while Colbert was prime minister. Mansard was the architect, Lebrun the decorative painter, and Lenôtre planned and laid out the gardens both of the Versailles and Great Trianon, the palace of which latter was also designed by Mansard. The Little Trianon was built by order of Lewis XV. from the design of Gabriel.

The best purpose to which the palace of Versailles could be now employed, is that of an university, as it is a convenient distance from Paris, where the best masters might be procured, while its site is in a spot which could not fail to ensure health to its inhabitants. The front of this magnificent building toward the garden, occupies a very great extent, and consists of two immense wings, between which the body of the palace projects very considerably. and

appears by no means proportionate. Nothing but ~~the~~ extraordinary number of its former residents, and the dissipation which attended their every movement, could have given life to this stupendous pile.

Many of the rooms are now filled up with a few shells and stuffed monkeys, which are called a museum for the entertainment of the citizens, who are requested, *in the name of the arts*, by printed papers stuck up in every corner of the apartments, not to injure these *precious relics*. Some good paintings, however, are collected here from the different churches, which the *sovereign people* in their wisdom thought proper to destroy. There is also in this building a most sumptuous opera-house, which was fitted up for the marriage of the late king, and than which nothing can be better calculated to give an idea of the splendour that universally prevailed during the ancient monarchy. We saw the bed-chamber of the late queen, from which she so narrowly escaped being massacred by the banditti, who forced their way into the palace: among those wretches, we read with horror the name of Orleans, who, in the dress of a woman, instigated this band of murderers! Humanity shudders on viewing the spot where the *gardes du corps* were butchered in defending the lives of their august charge; but when we find ourselves in the same room where these monsters filled the queen's bed with the stabs of their poinards, thinking they had not given her time to escape, it is not in the power of language to furnish sufficient epithets of detestation.

I was much pleased with a small summer residence to which the queen was extremely partial; it is called the Little Trianon. The grounds at this place are laid out quite in the English taste; and there are huts dispersed about them in groups which add much to their beauty. It was to this place that Marie Antoinette used to retire with her select parties of friends; and during their stay, each individual was in the costume, and adopted the manners, of some fancy character. A hut was allotted to each, corresponding to his or her part in a play; for instance, one representing a mill, a cottage, a parsonage, &c. This amusement used to continue sometimes two or three days. Scandal adds, that hither the unfortunate queen was accustomed to bring the object of her amours.

There is also another building in the neighbourhood, called the Great Trianon; but the only things worthy of remark there, are the park, and a corridor supported by pillars of very fine marble.

The water-works at Versailles are very well worth seeing; though I am informed, that since the revolution they have been so much neglected, as not to be comparable in splendour to their former state.

The neighbourhood of Versailles is extremely beautiful, though an excursion in its woods is not attended with the same satisfaction as when they were kept in order for the ancient court. But they are still interspersed with picturesque views, and will amply recompense any person who feels inclined to explore the environs of this ancient seat of royalty.

In my return I paid a visit to St. Cloud, which Buonaparte has fixed on for his residence. In this choice I should have perfectly agreed with him; as the spot combines a certain magnificence, with a degree of comfort which is rarely to be met with in princely habitations. An immense number of workmen are employed to fit it for the reception of the First Consul; who perhaps has partly been induced to fix on this situation, from its having been here that he first placed himself in the kingly seat of the house of Bourbon on the 18th Brumaire. The site commands a beautiful view of Paris and the Seine, which river is handsomer here than at any other place that I have witnessed in the neighbourhood of Paris.

Saint Cloud was founded by Clodoald, one of the grandsons of Clovis: it was here that Henry III. was assassinated by the Jacobin monk Jacques Clément. The palace was almost rebuilt during the reign of Lewis XVI, and was purchased by the late queen from one of the king's brothers.

Since my last I have also paid a visit to the valley of Montmorency, which is a short distance from this place. Near the town of that name is the ancient house of the celebrated author of the *New Eloisa*; to which I paid my respects, not in consequence of the effect which the sentiments of that author have produced in the world, but because it was the habitation of a man so renowned in every part of France. I was shewn the favorite spot to which Rousseau used to retire, and where it is supposed that several volumes of the *New Eloisa* were composed. It commands a most beautiful view of the valley, terminated by distant hills; which, with a large piece of water, represent in miniature those native scenes of Switzerland, so beloved by that romantic writer. I was accompanied

in this excursion by my French master, who is a great admirer of Rousseau; and in consequence of his wishes, we have dined in the shade of the very tree which had often screened Jean Jacques from the rays of the sun. During our repast, he frequently asked me whether I did not feel my ideas expand, on reflecting we trod on the same ground which had once been pressed by so great a man; to which I frankly replied, that owing to the natural coarseness of my sensations, the only one I felt at the moment was that of extreme hunger produced by the purity of the air which circulated round us. This reply produced the exclamation so common in the mouth of every Frenchman: "*Mon Dieu, que les Anglais sont froids!*"

Tours, Aug. 27, 1802.

You perceive by the date of this, that I have fulfilled my intention of proceeding southward. We reached this place yesterday, after a very pleasant journey of four days from Paris. I was accompanied by B*** and N***, whom I accidentally met at Paris, and who agreed to proceed with me as far as Tours. As we were not pressed for time, we took the road through Fontainebleau, which we were given to understand was infinitely more interesting than the direct one to Orleans.

We arrived early in the day at Fontainebleau, after passing through a fertile and pleasing country. There is a great deal of fine savage scenery in the forest, which seems perfectly calculated for the retreat of a banditti; but we did not hear that it was infested by those gentry, the road not being sufficiently frequented to make it worth their attention. The town of Fontainebleau bears the marks of a place which has known better times: as there are many excellent houses in it, but these have been depopulated by the revolution; which has deprived the town of its grand support, the ancient court. Lewis XVI. was very fond of this place; and used to pass much of his time here in hunting wild boars, in which its forest abounded. The palace is a fine venerable structure, and forms a motley collection of different sorts of architecture; indeed in this respect it may almost serve for a chronological table of the kings of France from the time of its original founder; as each monarch has added something to it, and has taken care to transmit to posterity his addition in the style of the century in which he reigned. It was commenced under the reign of Lewis VII. Francis I.

ornamented it much in 1540, with the labours of François Primaticci, a celebrated Italian painter. Henry IV, Lewis XII, and his successors of the same name, considerably enlarged the *château*. It was here that Christina, queen of Sweden, ordered Monaldecki, her gentleman of the bed-chamber, to be assassinated, in 1644. This palace has suffered much by the hands of the modern barbarians; particularly the chapel, which we were informed was very magnificent before the revolution. Government has now established a military school in the *château*. The town contains 7,429 inhabitants.

The next morning we left Fontainebleau, to proceed to Orleans, but met nothing interesting on the road. In passing the forest, we were again delighted with some beautiful scenery, which gained much by a rising sun. The country between Fontainebleau and Orleans is generally fertile, but thinly inhabited; the road tolerably good. The entrance into Orleans is pleasing; and the number of little neat boxes scattered among the vines, give a life to the scene, and render it truly picturesque. On our arrival at Orleans, we had only time to take a turn on the bridge, which is very neat, and has a well-built street (the only one in the place) leading to it. There is a walk shaded by trees in the town, on a terrace which commands a remarkably fine view: the cathedral also, particularly two of its towers, is well worth observation. I need not observe to you, that this was the native place of the famous Joan of Arc, who saved the town by her courage, in heading the troops in a sally against our countrymen who were besieging it. In commemoration of the event, it is now proposed to raise a statue to her memory, and to form annually a procession of the constituted authorities on the anniversary of her birth. The town includes 36,000 inhabitants, and is remarkable for its antiquity. It is supposed to have been raised to the rank of a city by Anselm, whose name it took. It came into the possession of the French in the reign of Clovis, after the defeat of Syagrius; the consequence of which was the destruction of the Roman dominion in Gaul.

The day after our arrival at Orleans, we proceeded toward Blois, where we arrived about noon. I was much disappointed in this journey, as I had been told the road was beautiful: but owing to the dryness of the season, the Loire was almost without water; and the vines were so scorched, that the prospect was far from being pleasing

Here I must remark, that few countries afford so little variety in scenery, as those wholly devoted to the cultivation of the vine. I had formed a notion that they very much resembled our hop-gardens in England, than which nothing can be more delightful when the plant is in flower: instead of which, the vines are seldom suffered to grow higher than three feet, or three and a half; and when the leaves begin to lose their verdure, they give to the country an appearance which is far from relieving the eye of the traveller.

Blois is famous for its *château*, which was once the residence of the ancient kings of France. Its structure strongly denotes antiquity, of which it is one of the best-preserved specimens that I ever saw. It was in this *château* that the duke of Guise, surnamed, from the effect of his military services, *le Ballafré**, was assassinated in 1538, by order of Henry III. The population of Blois amounts to 13,213 individuals.

The town is most villainous: the streets are dirty and narrow; and as most of them are situated on the declivity of an extremely steep hill, it is impossible to ascend or descend in a carriage without encountering the danger of breaking one's neck.

I must here acquaint you with a circumstance which happened to our friend B**** during our stroll round the town, and which made N**** and myself laugh most heartily. B****, in consequence of eating too many grapes at Fontainebleau (for which fruit, by the bye, that place is much celebrated), was very much afflicted with a complaint in his bowels, that proved very troublesome to him in travelling. On our arrival at Blois, finding himself rather easier, he conceived that he might venture to take a turn with us, to see the place; but alas! he had hardly been with us a quarter of an hour, before he felt such a strong appeal from dame Nature, that he was under the necessity of obeying her dictates without hesitation. A church-yard presenting itself, B*** did not lose a moment in taking advantage of this fortunate circumstance. We had scarcely turned our heads, before we heard our unfortunate friend (who did not speak a word of French) exclaim, "Holoz! what the devil are you about?" On turning round, we witnessed a scene not to be described; B****, with his clothes loose, endeavouring to prevent a French sentinel from tak-

* Marked with cuts and gashes.

ing away his hat, to which it seems the soldier was entitled, in consequence of B****'s having committed an uncleanness near him. However, on my explanation to the sentry that my friend was entirely ignorant of the custom of the country, we compromised the matter for a piece of twenty-four sous.

The road from Blois to Tours must be beautiful in seasons that do not dry up the stream of the Loire. During a part of the way, there is on one side a hill, on the declivity of which the country-people have taken up their abode, which consists of an excavation made in the sandy rock with little difficulty. The effect produced by these subterranean habitations, is singular enough. The entrance into the town is very fine, by a passage over one of the handsomest bridges in France, which has unfortunately had three of its arches swept away by the torrents to which the Loire is subject on the dissolving of the ice. The towers of the cathedral have a good effect as we approach the place; and the grand street into which we enter after passing the bridge, is calculated to inspire the traveller with a very favourable opinion of the town.

I must now quit you, in order to deliver my letters of introduction to some of the worthy inhabitants; and to request them to inform me where I can procure lodgings, as the inn in which we are at present is not sufficiently clean to inspire us with the wish to occupy it longer than is absolutely necessary.

Tours, Sept. 10. 1808.

I am now settled in a French family here: our society consists of a gentleman, a lady, a little girl, an Englishman who speaks very good French, and your humble servant; so that it will be my own fault if I do not succeed in making myself a tolerable Frenchman. At present the town is extremely dull, as almost all the families are in the country, where they pass a great deal of their time, more on the score of economy than of pleasure. It is also necessary that they should be present at the making their very inferior wine, from which they derive the principal part of their revenue. As the gentleman of the house in which I live has a country-seat in the neighbourhood, we are to spend a month there soon, in order to assist at the vintage. We are told that on our return we shall find the town much more agreeable; at present our only resource in the evening is a theatre, on the boards of which are not to be seen the

best actors. Though there is very little company in the place, however, I find the time pass very rapidly, which may be attributed to several causes; but principally the manner of living in this country is so very different from what we meet with in our own, that every instant presents something new to arrest one's attention.

The entrance into this place, both from Bourdeaux and Paris, is really beautiful; but the town itself, with the exception of one principal street which runs through it, is like all the old French towns, dirty and stinking. There is a very pretty walk round the ancient ramparts, which were delightfully shaded formerly by two fine rows of elms; but these trees the revolutionary fanatics, in following up their system of general devastation, chose to cut down. The persons now in power have caused the ground to be replanted, but it will require a great length of time before the inhabitants will be able to profit by this mark of public spirit in their present rulers. This town is an archbishopric, but its diocesan is absent. Report says, that he is a man of most amiable manners, and that he is partial to our country, where he passed several years of his emigration. The ancient archiepiscopal palace is very fine: but it is still in the hands of *the Nation*, who thought proper, during the revolution, to take unto herself every thing that was worth having. However, Mr. Bojellin, the present archbishop, is endeavouring to obtain permission to inhabit the ancient palace of his predecessors, and it is generally believed that he will be successful.

Nothing can exceed the disgust which I felt, on entering the cathedral here, at seeing the remains of the sacrilegious work of the wretches who had formed this venerable structure into a temple of the Goddess of Reason. It is necessary to have been in this country, to have a perfect idea of the extravagances which its inhabitants have committed in the name of *reason*, and of the horrors perpetrated under the pretext of *liberty*. I am certain that nothing would prove such an effectual cure for those British subjects who are affected with a revolutionary mania, as a visit to a nation which has so cruelly felt its most abominable effects.

This place is one of those which escaped from witnessing the crimes that have sullied for ever many of the other towns of the republic: the revolutionary committee, however, which governed it for some time, imprisoned the

greater part of its most respectable inhabitants, many of whom were sent to Paris, to be sentenced by that most diabolical of human institutions, the Revolutionary Tribunal. There were few people executed here for their political opinions; and the inhabitants assure you, that if it had not been for a band of strangers, whom the then existing government sent into every principal town in France, even those few would not have suffered death. It is hardly possible, however, to learn the exact truth from what we hear; for those who committed the greatest crimes during the revolution, are now the first to exclaim against its enormities. It is now the fashion to lament the crimes that were produced by that spirit of insubordination which governed France during twelve years; and from conversation with the people of every description, we should believe that there is not a man now existing who has participated in the crimes which have for ever branded this nation with infamy.

In almost every pit that is dug in this department, are found an immense quantity of small shells and petrified sea fish, some of which are remarkably curious. At the distance of about two leagues from Tours, is a grotto called *les Gouttières*, which is so very dark that we are obliged to have torches to find our way in it. Inside, the water is constantly dripping; and as it drops, it congeals, and forms stalactites of the most beautiful shape and transparency. In the neighbourhood of Chinon is dug a great quantity of saltpetre.

The population of the district of Tours amounts to 128,635 individuals, and the electoral college of the department is composed of two hundred members. The department is fertile in grain, wine, fruit, and vegetables.—There is also a great extent of pasture lands on the borders of the Loire. Its principal commerce consists in corn, wine, aniseed, prunes, chestnuts, silk, and cattle of every description. Its greatest manufactures are those of stuff, silk, ribbons, cloth, and pottery, with some tan-yards.

L'Essai, near Tours, October 20, 1802.

We are now busily employed in making our wine, at a country-house about two leagues from Tours; and I assure you the scene is extremely pleasing. Nothing can exceed the gaiety which is displayed during the whole process of extracting the juice of the grape: one can almost imagine that the bewitching fruit has the faculty of exhilarating the

spirits, even before it has undergone fermentation. Notwithstanding the scorching rays of the sun, nought is to be heard in the vineyard, but the broad laugh of the rustic labourer, or the untaught, yet melodious voice of the partner of his toils. I had long wished to witness such a scene, in order to be better able to judge of the merits of paintings representing this subject of festivity. I could almost fancy Bacchus mounted on his car, drawn by tygers, and surrounded by nymphs and satyrs offering libations to the godhead, had I not been stopped in the career of my imagination, in beholding nymphs who are wrinkled at five-and-twenty, and men that have nothing in common with satyrs except their extreme ugliness. I was really quite astonished to see women so young bearing the marks of old age; for though perpetual exposure to the sun must naturally detract from freshness of complexion, and substitute the dingy tint of the olive for the vermilion of the rose, still I expected to find the appearance of youth in spite of a brown colour, and a smooth skin, notwithstanding the effect of the solar rays.

In this country we do not meet that cleanliness which distinguishes the huts of the generality of the peasants in England, nor the air of comfort so often seen in the latter. The French peasants, however, gained much by the revolution, and many of them during the time of the depreciation of the assignats, sufficient to purchase the farms of which they were formerly tenants. In fact, they were almost the only class of people who could arbitrarily fix the prices of every article of life; for while they were paying their landlords in paper-money (which was still a legal tender, though they would not sell their corn for it), they were obliging those very landlords to make over to them a part or the whole of their farm, for wheat to prevent their families from starving. Nothing could exceed the insolence and inhumanity of these boors during the revolution: they were not only the first to persecute their benefactors, and to threaten to destroy their landlords, if they did not quit their places of residence, but during the time of an artificial scarcity, produced by the machinations of the government in 1796, they took advantage of this circumstance, in order to exact the last resource from those who were absolutely dying with hunger. Many of the wretches have been known to insist on having the only bed that remained for the use of an unfortunate family, before they would supply the poor

sufferers with a scanty portion of corn to prevent them from starving. Notwithstanding the money which the peasantry made by thus taking advantage of the miseries of their countrymen, there are few of its effects to be seen now; for most of them spent it in the greatest extravagance, and, besides this, the taxes they have to pay, and the men whom they are obliged to furnish for the army, have taken from them the means of deriving comfort from their former exactions.

The grounds here appear to me not so clean as those in England; and the farmers seem to trust more to the goodness of the soil, and the temperature of their climate, for an abundant crop, than to their skill in the art of cultivation.

We pass our time here pleasantly enough. I generally rise with the sun; and taking my gun and dog, amuse myself for a couple of hours before breakfast in talking to the people employed among the vines, or occasionally killing a partridge, of which birds here are abundance. On my return home, I find the family ready for breakfast, which consists of most delicious fruit of various kinds, with tea and coffee. After breakfast, I employ the whole of the morning in translating something for my French master, and in reading French authors. About an hour before dinner we assemble in the billiard-room, where we amuse ourselves till the servant announces, "*Madame est servie* *." In the evening, after the great heat is over, we take a walk with the family till it is dark: we then return, and finish our day by a game at whist or backgammon.

We have a very pleasant neighbour about a league from us, at whose house we occasionally spend the day; and here I cannot too much commend the perfect ease with which every one follows his inclination in a French country house. From the moment of our entering, we are at liberty to consider ourselves at home; and the mistress of the house, after a few customary compliments, relieves us from the disagreeable necessity of being *pretty-behaved*, and herself from the obligation of racking her brain, in order to engage her guest in a conversation which generally is neither *instructive* nor *entertaining*.

Nothing can surpass the false taste of the French in laying out their gardens; for they either torture their trees

* Dinner waits.

into straight-cut alleys; or make what *they* call an English garden, on a piece of ground about the size of a handkerchief. But seriously, in all their performances of this kind, there is so much art manifest, that the eye seeks in vain for those life-inspiring scenes produced by the hand of Nature. There is certainly something grand and magnificent in the approach to many of their country seats; but the sight sickens at such a perpetual appearance of straight lines, and searches for the curve which at each fifty paces produces some unexpected beauty in the more tasty gardens of our own country. Few, very few, are the nations which can boast its blessings. Enjoy them, my dear friend, while you have it in your power; and let those who choose, run after knowledge in a foreign land: yours perhaps is the wiser part.

Tours, Nov. 15, 1802.

We have returned from the country, as the evenings get long and cold; and we began to perceive an enemy creep in upon us, which the French dread beyond any other nation. This enemy is called in their language *ennui*: we have no term, I believe, to express it fully in ours*; and I hope that a few more solid resources, which, generally speaking, we possess, will enable us to exclude the word from ever gaining currency among us. The French have it constantly in their mouths: if they study, they repeat, "*Mon Dieu, que cela m'ennuye!*" if they are riding, "*Cela les ennuye*;" if they are hearing a sermon, "*Oh! pour le coup, je m'ennuye à mourir*;" if they are at the play, though that is their favourite amusement, yet nine times out of ten, "*Cela les ennuye aussi*." In short, it appears that the sensation of *ennui* is a justification in their eyes for indulging in that versatility of disposition which is the characteristic of the nation. We must, however, do them the justice to say, that the same versatility, when tempered by age, renders the every entertaining, where a profound knowledge of the subject started is not required. The perpetual change from one thing to another, makes them attain a very general knowledge; and being quick of apprehension, they comprehend in a moment things which a German would not master in a week. When a Frenchman can overcome that volubility of speech, and that self-sufficiency, which cha-

* *Ennui* is the lassitude and vacancy which the mind feels when an object which has excited a lively interest loses its charm.

Characterise most young men of his nation, he becomes a remarkably pleasant member of society. Such a character we often meet in some old officer, who has seen service, the hey day of whose passions is over, and whose sole pleasure is to amuse others with the result of his observations on mankind. Men of this description are now so cruelly neglected by their ungrateful country; that many of them who have honourable scars to produce in testimony of what they have undergone for their native land, yet lie neglected in a condition little above starving. . . .

The more I become acquainted with this climate, the more I am delighted with it; as it possesses all the good qualities of a more southern atmosphere, without any of its relaxing properties. The population of Tours amounts to about 22,000 inhabitants: the town formerly possessed silk-manufactories; but since the revolution, they have fallen to decay. Indeed what has not the revolution destroyed? It has overturned monarchy, with the notion of giving freedom to France; yet after inflicting the most dreadful fiery ordeal that a country ever underwent, it has produced a form of government the most tyrannical on the face of the earth. My most fervent prayers are, that we may learn from this example, how to appreciate the blessings of our own happy constitution; and bear without reluctance its imperfections, reflecting that some must ever attend on human establishments.

Much as I had heard and read of the horrors of the French revolution, I could not possibly have formed any adequate idea of its effects before I visited this country. Hardly a family is to be met with, that has not lost some one of its members by the troubles which it produced; and many a family has not a member left to reprobate the monsters who exercised this destructive fury. Gracious heaven, and yet there are still advocates for this bloody system! That abuses of a most atrocious nature existed in the old French monarchy, cannot be denied; and in justice to many persons, they must be allowed to have been, in the first instance, induced to support the revolutionary system, by the idea of being useful to their country in reforming those abuses. Many retracted when they found it was going too far; many were hurried down the torrent, and dashed to pieces against the rocks which it had been their express object to avoid; and many became at length so callous to every sense of feeling, that they witnessed the most horrid executions with as much indifference as if they had only been contemplating a

theatrical performance. The horrors that were committed at Lyons, Avignon, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, can never be remembered without the sensation appropriate to the knowledge of a nation, once renowned for its civilization, having been totally lost to a sense of humanity. No one seems to have understood this nation so well as Voltaire, who described them as a composition of the monkey and the tyger. I would willingly divest myself of a prejudice which is too apt to influence us, when speaking of a country that has been for ages, in many instances, the successful rival of our own; but the scenes of blood which have been committed here are too recent, to allow one to speak of it with all the coolness that is necessary on such an occasion. Whenever my opinion is asked on the subject by the inhabitants of this place, I evade the question, by saying that foreigners come, at an unfortunate moment to judge of France, after it has undergone such a dreadful political earthquake. Indeed it is only wonderful that its state should be so well, bad as it is, after so long a deprivation of religion; after such repeated attempts to corrupt the morals of the people, by those in power; and after the habit of seeing the most dreadful crimes committed with impunity. I wish, my dear friend, that I could soften the sombre colours of the picture, not only for the sake of those who are delineated, but also for yours; as the contemplation of such scenes must ever be distressing to a man of feeling. They shew human nature in such a deplorable view, that if it were not for a few friends on the other side of the Channel who could form the reverse of the medallion, I might be half tempted to become a misanthrope; but that can never be the case with one who has the enjoyment of feeling for you an esteem which he knows is reciprocal.

Tours, January 1, 1802.

While I fancy you surrounded by numerous friends in England, to whom the new year brings a renewal of love and esteem, I cannot help transporting myself in idea to your happy fire-side, and claiming that portion of affection which I trust you would not refuse me if I were present. Indeed I envy your circle for more reasons than one: as in the first place, I should be surrounded by persons to whom I am sincerely attached; and next, should be in a drawing-room where the doors and windows shut close, and such we have not *here*; I should have a carpet to tread on, —and such I have not *here*; and a chimney-place a little

less wide than that which we have *here*. The people of this country have no notion of what we call *comfort* in ours, nor have they a corresponding word in their language. They seem more prepared against heat than against cold; for many of their rooms, even their bed-chambers, have brick-floors: so that woe be to him who gets out of bed in the winter, and is obliged to trot barefoot in search of any thing he may want!

Our gaieties have commenced, and the town has become very pleasant. Though almost every person's income is diminished by the revolution, yet as they are all on the same footing in this respect, they endeavoured to amuse themselves, if not by sumptuous repasts, at least by entertainments where there is as much mirth as there was perhaps formerly, when these were infinitely more expensive. The French certainly possess above all other nations, the means of "making a little go a great way;" and, call it levity of character if you choose, they bear up against misfortune better than the inhabitants of any other country under heaven. The same gaiety which you saw prevailing among the emigrants during their exile in England, still reigns among them since their return, though the revolution has reduced them nearly to a state of beggary; the same heedlessness respecting *to-morrow*, and the same invariable determination of not losing the present moment for the pursuit of their schemes of pleasure. If these schemes were always rational, perhaps the projectors of them would have the advantage over the ruminating philosopher, who consumes his time in puzzling himself about the choice of different plans of happiness, till the freezing hand of Time disables him from putting any one of them into execution. I have always been convinced that perfection lies in a medium between our two nations; and that by giving to the French character a little of our solidity, and taking a slight dose of French gaiety as an antidote to that moroseness which we often meet in our own country, each would be bettered by the prescription. But till human perfection can be met with, we must put up with the world as we find it, *un poco di bene e un poco di male*.*

An inhabitant of this country would have jumped into the boat that awaited him, without racking his brain with the ridiculous ideas of *presages* and such nonsense, or any of the useless pangs which I felt at bidding adieu to my native country,

* A little good and a little ill.

We (that is, seven or eight English of this place) have lately given a ball to the good people who have shewn us civilities during our stay here. It was numerously attended: and by some very pretty women, who certainly have a method of dressing themselves on such occasions with much more elegance and taste than we generally see in provincial towns in England; and that, added to their style of dancing, makes a ball room an enchanting scene in this country. I could not bring myself at first to like their *waltzing*, which they had adopted since their communication with Germany during the last war; but now that I am become an adept in the art myself, I find that it has its charms. The waltz certainly is not a decent dance, nor is it graceful for so many couple to be following each other like so many tee-totums that an invisible power has set spinning: it appears better calculated for a public house, than for an elegant ball-room. The French ladies however are passionately fond of it, and now begin to rival their neighbours on the other side of the Rhine.

The purity of the air is such here, that after dancing very late, and being much fatigued, an hour's walk on the mall is so refreshing as to give us strength and spirits to recommence on the following evening. I often tell the people of this part of the country, laughing, that I wonder how it is possible to die in such a climate. I have no doubt of its contributing in a great measure to the constant flow of spirits that accompanies them; though I am aware at the same time, of the effects of their education.

Tours, March 19, 1803.

I now begin to make myself tolerably well understood in French, and consequently to feel more pleasure in society than I have hitherto had. I know few positions more truly distressing, than that of a man surrounded by people holding a conversation in a language with which he is not acquainted. If he has only a slight knowledge of it, this is perhaps worse than if he had none at all; for the few words which he does comprehend, make him feel the more regret at his deficiency. The frequent blunders that arise from the mistakes made by foreigners who are beginning to speak French, are truly ludicrous, more so perhaps than in any other country: the confusion of the genders in particular sometimes produces a very serious mistake. I amused the company much a few days ago, by my English pronunciation of their vowel *u*; and at the same time paid a com-

pliment to a very pretty woman without intending it. The conversation turned on the comparative difficulty of the English and the French pronunciation: the lady asserting that there was nothing in the French language half so difficult to be acquired, as the pronunciation of our *th* was to them; to which I replied that we found the French *u* equally so, saying "*vos u s* (which I sounded like *vos yeux*) *me tourmentent beaucoup*."* You may easily conceive the laugh raised by this mistake: the lady was pleased; as she had a pair of very fine eyes, a feature for which the French ladies are famous. In general, the whole of their beauty depends on this; as they are indebted more to expression of countenance, than to regularity of feature. There are usually a boldness in their look, which ill accords with what Englishmen are thought to think peculiarly bewitching in the female face; and a levity in their manner, that we must be accustomed to before we can reconcile it to our ideas of female decency.

While speaking of the females of France, it is necessary to remark, that in no other country are the women so persevering when they undertake to ask a favour of government. Few of them are abashed at a first or a second refusal; and many continue their efforts with much zeal in the cause they undertake, that they almost always carry their point. I would recommend any person who may have a favour to ask of ministers, to employ the irresistible eloquence of a Frenchwoman in pleading his cause.

The archbishop of this place has been extremely civil to us: and indeed it is a real pleasure to dine at his house; not only on account of his being a man of the most fascinating behaviour, but because he loves to express his gratitude on all occasions for the civilities which he experienced in our country. His manners are quite those of the old court, in which he had passed the chief part of his early years; and notwithstanding his great age (72), he possesses all the fire of youth, with the ease that seldom fails to attend one who has spent a long life in the first circles. He has promised to shew me a translation in verse which he has made, of some of Shakspeare's works. I very much doubt it being well done; as the good old prelate does not speak a word of English, but tells us that he reads it tolerably well. It requires something more than a tolerable knowledge of our

* This is exactly as if a Frenchman said to an English lady "Your *u s* (sounded like *your eyes*) torment me extremely."

language, to translate Shakspear into French verse. And here I must remark, that when the French in general get a smattering of any thing, they think themselves proficient in it; and many times have I been completely deceived by their aptitude at making the most of a very slight portion of knowledge. They certainly comprehend a subject quicker than we do; but this readiness of intelligence induces them to learn *so many* things at a time, that they seldom make themselves masters of *one*. There certainly however are many exceptions to this general rule; for I think nothing is so illiberal as the way in which we are too apt to speak of the French, generalizing the whole nation on the model of some few individuals that happen to fall under our notice. I know it is the fashion in England to consider them as conceited; and so they are as a nation: but let us not be blind to our own failing in that respect, when we draw a comparison between ourselves and not only the French, but every other people under the sun. I am fully aware of the benefit arising, in point of sustaining our national spirit, from this habit; but in France I have often seen our countrymen carry it to such a silly excess, as to make them ridiculous in the eyes of the natives, and deprive themselves of means which they might otherwise have procured for acquiring a just knowledge of the country. With all the love and the preference that I feel justly due to my own, I cannot help recommending this remark to the particular attention of such of its sons as may follow my steps here.

The walk called the Mall, which I mentioned to you in a former letter, is 7,980 feet long; with a terrace of the same length, commanding a most beautiful view of a plain and the adjacent hill. The bridge is about 1335 French feet long, and 42 wide; leading to the principal and only good street in the town, about 2400 feet in length. The cathedral is a fine specimen of Gothic architecture, particularly its two towers.

A few days ago we made an excursion to Amboise; where we saw a very old castle on the banks of the Loire, with an ascent in it sufficiently large to admit of a carriage being driven to its top. In the neighbourhood of Amboise is Chanteloup, formerly the seat of the duke of Choiseuil, who passed the whole time of his exile at this house when disgraced by Louis XV. It is now in a dreadful state of decay, though it is inhabited by the minister of the Interior (Chaptal). We saw also a pagoda which was built by the duke, in order to perpetuate the names of those who

honoured him with their visits during his exile. Their names were written in letters of gold on marble slabs, which it had been thought prudent to turn with their faces toward the wall during the revolution.

• From Chantloup, we went to another *chateau*, called Chonoucau, belonging to the family of Villeneuve. This is built on arches across the river Cher, and was constructed by order of Francis I. It contains several portraits of Diana of Poitiers, that monarch's mistress, who must have been exceedingly beautiful; and also two very old paintings of Petrarch and Laura, highly valued by the present possessor.

A curious anecdote is told respecting the late inhabitant of this singular building; which, if *any thing* can justify suicide, certainly does. Monsieur de V*** was cast into prison during the revolution, in common with most of the other respectable people in France, at a moment when every person who had the misfortune to be a nobleman was, if apprehended, led to the guillotine. While in confinement, he reflected that if he shared the fate of many of his fellow-prisoners, his fortune would be confiscated and his children become beggars; but that if he should destroy himself, as his children were minors, their inheritance could not legally be seized, and he only shortened the period of his existence by a few hours. These considerations were so powerful in his mind, that he effected his destruction with a razor, and thus secured his property to his children.

My next will be written to you from Paris.

Paris, May 12, 1803.

I returned to this place a few day ago, in order to be nearer the centre of intelligence respecting the disputes that daily arise between the governments of France and England. The result of those disputes will guide me in my future proceedings. A rupture with England is much dreaded in this country, particularly by the commercial people; as it would make it impossible for them to undertake any external speculation, and would in fact prove their ruin.

On my arrival here, I was very far from being well, being extremely heated by my journey from Tours; a few warm baths however have been of great service to me, and I trust that a little rest will perfectly re-establish my health. I have very little to communicate to you respecting my jour-

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ney, as the road is not remarkably interesting. We slept the first night at Vendome, which is as dirty and unsightly as most of the other old French towns. Its population amounts to 7,555 individuals. There are the remains of an old castle on a very high hill, from which we have a delightful view of the adjacent country. What drew my attention the most during this day, was an unfortunate young woman whom we saw on the borders of a wood between Chateau Regnault and Vendome, who had lost her senses after having witnessed the execution of a young nobleman at Paris to whom she was on the point of being married. The moment after his arrest, she took post-horses, and thus arrived at Paris some time before him. She met the cart to which he was chained, at the entrance of the capital; and watched it to the prison where her lover was destined to lie till his execution. She then hired a lodging opposite, and communicated to him by signs the result of her interviews with his merciless judges. All his efforts to save him proved ineffectual, and she was detained to see him perish on a scaffold. From that moment she became deranged;—she retired from the fair spot, and sought those scenes where once she had known happiness which she had imagined would be lasting. Nothing can exceed the misery and despair depicted on her countenance, one of the sweetest that I ever beheld. I conversed with her some time, but her incoherent answers, accompanied by momentary flashes of reason, were painful to me beyond description. On my arrival at Vendome, I could talk of nothing but the unfortunate creature that I had just left, and who had passed several years in the dreadful state in which I saw her.

As the differences between the two nations seem very far from being adjusted, you may probably see me shortly in England. There are many people here however, who are convinced that no rupture will take place, in consequence of its being so much the interest of both to live in amity together. If one may be allowed to judge from the conversation which has recently taken place between our ambassador and the First Consul, the breach can scarcely be repaired.

Fontainebleau, June 21, 1803.

You will doubtless have heard, with indignation and grief, of a measure which has recently taken place with respect to all the English that could be found in France; a measure

unparalleled in the history of modern times, and which stamps the author of it with infamy. I am relieved in a certain degree, by having the power of sending you this letter by a safe conveyance; as it affords me the means of unburthening my mind to an affectionate friend whose heart participates in my misfortunes. This opportunity may not happen frequently: I must therefore request you to recur to the expedient on which we agreed previous to my departure from England; and which will enable you to discover my real situation, though the account of it may be expressed in terms which others cannot understand.

You may easily conceive my surprize and mortification in seeing a *gens d'armes* enter my room at three o'clock in the morning, notwithstanding my passport was in the foreign office, and I had received the assurance of the minister for foreign affairs that the English were safe, and would receive an order shortly to return to their own country. I must however do him the justice to say, that I believe, when he professed to inform me of the intentions of his government, he was sincere: as we understood that the sudden caprice of Buonaparte has induced him to make us prisoners; and that this is an effect of that degree of passion to which he is so liable, in common with the natives of his country.

The greater part of us were sent to this town, where I have been also a few days; but I trust that I shall soon be permitted to return to Paris, where I shall find infinitely more resources for passing the time than at Fontainebleau. The natural gloom of the place is now augmented by the number of melancholy faces which we meet at every step: indeed, when we reflect on the prospect which awaits us, it requires more than ordinary philosophy to keep up our spirits. The measure however will make Buonaparte extremely unpopular; as it proves that he is capable of setting at defiance all law, and all received opinions among civilized nations, in order to gratify his natural malignity. I have fortunately met with a friend with whom I have taken a lodging; and whose society will save me the necessity of mixing promiscuously with a number of individuals (I am sorry to say, of my own country) that reflect but little credit on the nation that gave them birth. I fear that we shall many of us suffer from the conduct of these men; as in a general measure of this nature, it is difficult to make distinctions. It will therefore be my endeavour to obtain leave for retiring to a place sufficiently distant from the seat of government, to escape its attention; and near enough

to the frontiers, to get out of the republic in case of its intending us mischief: I think this the wisest plan that can be adopted in our truly unpleasant situation.

I have just learnt that my friends have procured me permission to return to Paris, where I shall only remain in order to procure the object that I have nearest to my heart in this country. They hope I may be allowed to go either to Geneva or Nancy. I should certainly prefer the former, if I did not think its nearness to the frontiers would prevent me from passing the remainder of my captivity there without molestation: I shall accordingly request to be sent to Nancy; which, I understand, possesses many recommendations.

Little did I think, in passing through this place before, that I should shortly become a prisoner here. What a difference does a change of circumstances create in the face of a country! In my journey last year, I thought the scenery wild but pleasing: now I can only contemplate it as a retreat for one who holds the world in abhorrence, and with the sullen anguish of despair. Since I have had more time to observe the scenery of the forest, I have discovered spots which bear no trace of human footsteps, and where it requires but a very small portion of imagination to fancy oneself in some desert island. I sincerely hope that my stay in this part of the world may be of short duration, as I feel myself growing daily more and more attached to such spots as those, where my mind broods too much over the horrors of our present situation.

Adieu, my good friend, on my return to Paris, I will endeavour to resume my spirits, and send you something more lively; but at present I am inadequate to the task.

Paris, July 14, 1803.

In consequence of the measure which the French government has most unwisely thought proper to adopt towards us, we must now be indebted principally to books for the knowledge that we may obtain concerning many things in this country; but before I communicate to you the portion which I may have obtained of such knowledge, I shall be careful to procure a corroboration of the different statements which they contain from persons whom I think capable of giving me that assistance. The book which has afforded me the best insight into every matter of importance which concerns this nation, is intitled, "*Statistique*

*générale et particulière de la France & de ses Colonies, &c.**
 This passes for the best of its kind ever published in France: its title is sufficient to explain what a wide field it embraces; and how interesting it must be, if the different subjects are treated with ability.

When you consider the vast extent of the country, and its situation, you will perceive that it embraces all the benefits arising from the concentrated rays of the sun, added to those of its northern neighbours. It therefore unites nearly all the productions of the respective countries of Europe. With four hundred leagues of coast, and the blessings above-mentioned with which Nature has favoured it, what an immense field for the talents of an able legislator!

In order to form a general idea of the nature of the soil, M. Delalauze thinks we ought to divide France into three zones; the meridional, the central, and the northern. The meridional commences at forty-two degrees and a half of latitude, and extends to the forty-fifth degree; including the following departments: Eastern Pyrenées, Lower and Higher Pyrenées, Landes, la Gironde, la Dordogne, Lot, l'Aveyron, Lot and Garonne, Cers, l'Arriège, the Higher Garonne, l'Aude, Tarn, l'Hérault, Gard, l'Ardèche, the Higher Loire, la Lozère, Vaucluse, Mouths of the Rhone, Var, Maritime Alps, Lower and Higher Alps, l'Isère, la Drome, la Doire, la Sesia, Marengo, Tanaro, la Sture, Po, Golo, Liamone, and the island of Elbe.

The second zone commences at the forty-fifth degree of latitude, and ends at the forty-eighth. It comprehends the following departments: Finistère, Northern Coasts, Ille and Vilaine, Lower Loire, Morbihan, la Sarthe, la Mayenne, Mayenne and Loire, Indre and Loire, la Vendée, two Sevrès, la Vienne, Lower Charente, la Charente, Higher Vienne, la Creuse, l'Indre, Cher, Eure and Loire, Loire and Cher, Loiret, la Nièvre, l'Allier, Cantal, Puy de Dome, la Corrèze, l'Yonne, the Gold-coast, Saone and Loire, Higher Saone, Doubs, Jura, l'Ain, Léman, Mont Blanc, and Loire.

The third zone begins at the forty-eighth degree of latitude, and finishes at the fifty-first. It includes the following departments: la Roer, Lower Meuse, l'Ourthe, two Nethe, la Dyle, Sambre and Meuse, Rhine and Moselle, la Sarre, Mont Tonnerre, Forests, Jemappe, la Lys, l'Es-

* General and particular Statistics of France and its Colonies.

caut, North, Pas de Calais, la Somme, Lower Seine, Calvados, l'Eure, l'Orne, la Manche, l'Oise, l'Aisne, Seine and Oise, Seine, Seine and Marne, Marne, Ardennes, l'Aube, Higher Marne, Meuse, Moselle, Meurthe Vosges, Lower Moselle, and Higher Rhine.

But M. Soncini has given us a more detailed account of the nature and extent of the soil to be met with here. He distinguishes.

ACRES.

1. The rich lands, such as are to be found in the following departments: Mont Tonnerre, Lys, l'Escaut, Dyle, Pas de Calais, North, l'Aisne, Seine and Marne, Seine, Seine and Oise, Eure and Loire, Eure, Lower Seine, Somme, l'Oise, Lower Rhine, l'Aude, Tarn, Lot, Higher Garonne, l'Hérault, la Vendée, two Sevrés, Loiret, Po, Marengo, Tanaro, and and Sesia: these he states at about 2821890903

2. Heath and unproductive lands, such as are to be met with in the following departments: Two Nethes, Rœr, Lower Loire, Morbihan, Finistère, Northern Coasts, Ille and Vilaine, Mayenne and Loire, l'Orne, Calvados, la Manche, la Gironde, la Dordogne, Lot and Garonne, Arrière, Higher Pyrénées, Lower Pyrénées, Landes, Gers, Aveyron, and Gard: about 2335560376

3. Chalky lands, such as the departments following: Marne, Ardennes, Aube, Higher Marne, Loire and Cher, Indre and Loire, Charente, and Vienne 1354490454

4. Gravelly soil, such as are to be found in the departments of Nièvre and Allier 384007196

5. Stony lands, such as the following departments contain: Sarre, Forests, Rhine and Moselle, Moselle, Vosges, Meurthe, Meuse Higher Rhine, Gold-coast, Higher Saône, Doubs, Saône and Loire, Jura, l'Ain, Yonne, Rhone, Loire and Jemappe, about 1901613612

6. Mountainous, such as Ourte, Sambre and Meuse, Lower Meuse, Eastern Pyrénées, Lozère, Cantal, Corrèze, Higher Loire, Ardèche, Drôme, Higher Alps, Lower Alps, Maritime Alps, Var, Mouths of the Rhone, Vaucluse, Puy de Dôme, Mont Blanc, Leman, Isère, Briançonne, Golo, Stura, and Doire, about 2623939458

	ACRES.
7. Sandy soils: such as l'Indre, Cher, Creuse, Higher Vienne, Sarthe, and Mayenne . . .	830314228

Total surface of France 12251756412

In order to acquaint us with the nature of its productions, he divides the soil into six parts:

1. Ploughed lands, which he estimates at . . .	6643887480
2. Vineyards	486873128
3. Woodlands	1026943252
4. Rich pasture lands	680403784
5. Artificial pasture lands	749060768
6. Heath, uncultivated lands, rivers, lakes, marshes, &c.	2081585000

Total 12251756412

A grand question suggests itself to every person who examines the foregoing statement: Has France lost or gained, on the score of agriculture, in consequence of the revolution? When I arrived in this country first, in the end of the year 1791, I was too young to form any judgment upon this subject; and on my second visit in 1802, I had no correct and general criterion for such a purpose, as I passed through the fertile provinces of Normandy and Touraine: I must therefore refer you to people more capable than myself, for information on this point. Those who have lost all their property by the revolution, will tell you that the state of agriculture is deplorable; but those, on the contrary, who have made their fortunes by the purchase of national domains, will assure you that nothing is so prosperous. What has taken place in France in the course of the revolution, happened too recently, and the wounds which it has caused are not sufficiently cicatrized, for the natives of this country to give an unbiassed opinion on the subject. M. Sonnich has written most ably concerning it: I shall therefore not apologize for translating his language into my own. He observes:

“As political events have a decided influence on every thing which relates to society in general; and as those to which the revolution of 1789 has rendered us witnesses, have been extraordinary and general in their effects; it

will not be unseasonable to examine what has been their result respecting agriculture: and this examination will furnish us with some interesting notions on its present state. The revolution has liberated the husbandman from the oppression of tythes, feudal rights of the landlords, and quit-rents (*champart*): the exclusive privilege of the chace is abolished; and a division of the large estates has taken place, in consequence of the sale of the national domains. These are certainly great acquisitions. What is the sum of advantage accruing from them? Our object is now, merely to take a comprehensive view of the subject; to examine the advantage which agriculture has derived from the above causes, and whether they have contributed to its advancement: every other consideration is foreign to our purpose.

"The tythe-holder and the feudal lord were in a measure co-proprietors of the lands from which they levied their oppressive rights; to the detriment of the *real* proprietor, who annually shared the produce of his fields with them who had neither ploughed nor sown. The abolition of those rights therefore, has turned entirely to the advantage of the proprietor; who now ploughs for himself alone, and for himself alone now gathers in his harvest. Hence the conviction naturally ensues, that he has become a richer man, is consequently enabled to cultivate his lands with more care, and that his farm is better stocked.—But any one who travels through and examines every department of France, will hardly find an additional sheep upon the farms; a corner of land cultivated with lucern or clover, that was not so formerly; harvests from lands that used to be barren; or a greater number of useful trees, such as the olive, the walnut, the mulberry, &c. We therefore *cannot* state that agriculture has gained, and that the proprietor cultivates his land better since he has reaped only for himself. On the contrary, what is the picture exhibited by the country which was formerly inhabited by those great landholders who deprived their tenants of a part of their wealth? The picture of misery, and of the most slovenly system of tillage. It is true, the war has destroyed some of the harvests, and has taken away the robust peasantry who were peculiarly fit for the fatigues of agriculture: time alone ~~can~~ remedy these evils: but what will replace the rich proprietor; whose presence, though he certainly did usurp a part of the fruits of the land, gave life and vigour to the country which he inhabited? He distributed with one hand, what he received with the other; he spent his

income in the country where he received it; and the corn which his antiquated rights enabled him to collect in his granaries, was there only to be sold at the first appearance of scarcity. One may therefore assert, that what the cultivator has gained on one side, he has lost on the other; and that agriculture has sustained a loss by the innovation in this respect.

The exclusive privilege of the chase was odious, and contrary to the law of nature; for, it may be asked, why ought not the possessor of a considerable landed estate, to be allowed to enjoy the benefit of the game which has fed on his crops? In giving him the right to kill the game on his estates, an act of justice has therefore been performed.—But where are the particular advantages thus conferred on agriculture, which was the plea for abolishing this privilege; a privilege deservedly styled unjust, since it was contrary to the interests of every proprietor who did not partake of it? It is necessary to distinguish between the hunting, and the animals which are its objects. The game itself was really destructive nowhere except in the neighbourhood of the royal chaces, where it had multiplied in a most alarming manner; but it must not be believed to have been so common in every part of France, nor indeed was it even on the estates of many feudal lords who were extremely jealous of their exclusive privilege respecting it. It was not uncommon to sport on the best-preserved estates a whole day without finding a single hare: thus the crops were not injured by the game itself, but in the act of pursuing it. The partridge was of little detriment to the cultivator, as it fed mostly on the gleanings after the crop was off the ground. Hence agriculture has not gained very considerably in consequence of the abolition of the exclusive rights of sporting: on the contrary, when we reflect on this measure coolly, it will not be difficult to perceive the error which has been committed, and how very detrimental it has been to the cultivation of the lands. Every one now having the right to sport on his own estate, instead of only the lord of the manor and his game-keeper (as formerly), instead of one sportsman we have a hundred. The peasant who perceives a hare start from his farm, or a partridge fly along on his ground, follows his game upon that of his neighbour, as a prey which belongs to him, and thus disputes arise. While the peasant is hunting, the spot of land necessary for his subsistence remains uncultivated; so that cultivation in fact loses essentially from the aboli-

tion of a privilege which used to belong *only* to him whose avocation was *not* that of ploughing and sowing. The slight damage which the game occasioned to the poor inhabitant of the country, was amply compensated by the employment which the residence of the privileged sportsman procured for him, or the succours arising from the liberality of the former. In point of commerce too, a great loss has been suffered from the injudicious destruction of the wild game, the skins of which were objects of a considerable branch of trade. Agriculture has gained much more from the destruction of pigeon-houses; the inhabitants of which used to disperse themselves in vast numbers, follow the plough, and not give the labourer time to cover the seeds. The wood-pigeons in particular were extremely formidable in the hemp-fields, and used to diminish the crops of the peasant who happened to have them in his neighbourhood.

"We should naturally be led to place to the account of advantages which the revolution has procured for agriculture, the common lands which it has brought into a state of cultivation. Those commons where each inhabitant of the district used to leave his cattle to feed, were never broken up either by the plough or the spade; grass never had time to grow on them to any length, and stagnant water often rendered the pasture of such lands extremely bad. This change therefore might be expected to have turned entirely to the improvement of agriculture; but it has done so in a very small degree, in consequence of the manner in which it has been effected. Every person who formerly enjoyed a right to feed his cattle on these lands, has now received an allotment of them according to the extent of his local possessions. From this division there have sprung up an immense number of proprietors of land among the day-labourers, who are found much poorer since their new acquisitions. These little slips of land were rendered at first extremely productive by the spade of the cultivator; but became by degrees less fertile, in consequence of these poor people not being able to manure them sufficiently. Deceived by the first crops, the unfortunate peasant concluded that he was exploring a perpetual source of abundance; but discovered his error when it was too late, and perhaps is now convinced that the condition of a day-labourer is a thousand times preferable to that of too small a proprietor."

M. Sonnini continues: "If the revolution had merely

effected a change of masters in regard to large estates; if all the lands styled *national* had passed into hands accustomed to the business of cultivation; it would still be a question whether agriculture had been benefited by it. All the former proprietors had the means of pursuing tillage with success; and those means were directed usefully, in consequence of the greater part having a taste for, and a knowledge of, the art of husbandry. When sound judgment directs agricultural experiments, or even the smallest operations of that nature, success is generally the result; and in the absence of prejudice, even an error may be ultimately useful. The new proprietors have not purchased with a view to cultivation, either as a business or an amusement; but in order to place their money to advantage, and profit by the discredit into which lands of the above description had at one time fallen. All those great estates became objects of *jogging* (*agiotage*); which degraded agriculture, and turned considerably to its detriment: and their present condition confirms the assertion. The farms of those fathers of French agriculture, might have served as models to our best cultivators; their lands were well tilled, it was very rare to see them in a state of decline, and no improvement was neglected. It was on their farms, which were kept in good repair, that we met the most valuable cattle to be seen in France, the finest teams, and the best-assorted implements of husbandry; but their former masters would now have some difficulty in recognizing their ancient possessions. The system which has been adopted in the disposal of these national domains, by dividing them in order to facilitate the sale, has augmented, it is true, the number of proprietors who cultivate them, but has proved extremely detrimental to agriculture in general. The new proprietors were indeed good cultivators; but having been formerly mere labourers, possessed neither the means nor the instruction necessary for tilling their ground with advantage: and hence the land which was excellent when they first took it, is now no more so; its fertility having ceased in consequence of their not being able to replace by manure what they took away by their crops of corn, which they multiplied too numerously. This evil is the more felt, as these national lands were formerly managed in the best manner possible, and were those from which the greatest crops were derived; it will however be remedied by the hand of time; by degrees these small portions of land will be again united under one cultivator, when necessity forces

the inferior proprietor, who cannot live upon so small a portion of land, to resume the character of a labourer: his condition will be ameliorated by the change, and agriculture will be improved.

"The suppression of all sorts of *côvée* (an obligation formerly imposed on the farmers, to work gratuitously on the high roads with their teams), could not fail to benefit agriculture. The farmer, freed from this servitude (which rendered him liable to be called upon at certain times of the year, when the most favourable for cultivation), may now choose the proper moment to plough and sow, without fearing an order to alter his arrangement.

"In the course of the revolution some essential objects of cultivation have been greatly neglected, but none have been lost. Others are become more general; such as potatoes, which are now grown in places where before they were scarcely heard of. The oil extracted from the beech-mast is now in use, where people formerly would burn nothing but olive oil; and it is greatly to be hoped that the use of it will not decline, as it is impossible to multiply too much the articles of consumption which can be easily purchased by the labouring poor."—

You will hence conclude that the soil of France is divided into too many farms, for its agriculture to be in high perfection. Another circumstance which proves of great detriment to it, is the rage which every peasant feels to have wine of his own making. The natural consequence is, that vines are often planted on soils which are by no means favourable for them, and bad wine is produced instead of good corn. Formerly there was a regulation, and a very wise one, that in each province the vines were only to bear a certain proportion to the corn-lands; but if this regulation exists now, it is not attended to in the least, and vines are multiplying every where to a most alarming degree.

I shall conclude this long letter with some observations which I have made on the agriculture of this department, where the maize or Indian corn is grown with great success. Corn also is very abundant here; as well as white beet-root, which is given to the cattle, hemp, rape, rye, and wild cabbage. The straw of the rape is used in tying the vines, which are numerous, but the wine is in general very poor. Potatoes also are in great plenty; and of late years artificial grasses have been introduced, particularly lucern. The tenants generally pay their landlords in kind, or partly in kind and partly in money: so that in order to know the

extent of a farm, you ask the cultivator how many *pairs* he pays his landlord; that is, how many pairs of sacks (one of wheat, and the other of oats or barley).

Most of the peasants plough with horses, which are very small; but about one-fourth of them plough with oxen. The leases seldom extend beyond nine years. The farm-houses are generally very much out of repair, the farms small, and the farmers poor; many little farmers cultivate their lands with the spade. Gardening is carried to great perfection in this department, and the fruit and vegetables in the neighbourhood of Metz enjoy great celebrity.

Paris, July 20, 1803.

I have now been returned to this centre of dissipation, this seat of levity, this emporium of science, for nearly a month; but find such an antipathy on the part of the government to every thing English, added to a determination of rendering our life as miserable as possible, that I still continue in my resolution to quit the capital for some more retired situation. You ask me in one of your letters, to which I give the preference, London or Paris. The question is difficult of solution. There are certainly more opportunities of cultivating a taste for literature here than in London: a man of pleasure will give the same preference to a place where nine-tenths of the people are wholly occupied about the pursuits of it: a person who wishes to study mankind, will certainly meet a greater variety of characters of every nation at Paris than at London: there are also more resources for one who wishes to cultivate the living languages:—but if your object is rational liberty; if you prefer the conversation of men whose occupation is public utility, to that of men whose minds are led away from this object by the irresistible bent which prevails in this country towards amusement, you will give the choice to London. If you look to cleanliness and accommodation, you must seek for it in the same quarter. If you wish to walk the streets without the constant dread of being crushed by carriages, you must give the palm to the streets of London. In short, a young man, or one who consults merely the exterior of things, will prefer Paris; but a man whose judgment is more solid, and who has passed the hey-day of youth, will give the preference to London.

With respect to public amusements, the difference between the two countries consists in this: a Parisian cannot

live without them, whereas the generality of the inhabitants of London consider them as only an *occasional* recreation. The Parisian's first object is, to raise money to buy a ticket for the theatre; and if any thing then remains, he goes to a *coffee-house* and saps upon a *biscuit* and *bacaroise* (a sort of *orgeat*). On the contrary, in London our first object is to pay for a beef-steak and a pint of Port; and then, if any thing is left, we go at half-price to the play. I must here observe, that the inhabitants of this country are infinitely more sober than those of our own; and a person is seldom admitted *twice* (as is the case too much in England) into the society of females of respectability, in a state of intoxication. In this respect it might be well if we took a lesson from our neighbours.

During my stay at Paris last year, I neglected to observe to you that there are two establishments which do honour not only to the feeling hearts of those who founded them, but also to the nation to which they belong. One of these is, the institution for teaching the deaf and dumb to read and write; and to express by signs not only their immediate wants, but also the most intricate operations of the mind. The other is a similar establishment for the blind. The perfection to which both these are brought, surpasses the conception of those who have not actually seen them. The first was established by a person whose name will be for ever revered by the admirers of those who afford relief to suffering humanity; and who counteract, by their unceasing labours, the defects which nature has, for some wise purpose, inflicted on their fellow-creatures. As long as there remains a spark of sensibility in the breast of those who witness the lectures given in the *faubourg St. Jacques*, where these interesting objects are publicly examined, a tear of sensibility cannot be withheld to the memory of the *abbé de l'Epée*. The person who succeeded him, and who has perfected the work of the philanthropic founder, is the *abbé Sicard*: a gentleman who unites the tenderest heart to the most persevering zeal for the success of the institution. In the course of a lecture given by the *abbé Sicard*, he opened a new book which had just issued from the press, and communicated a part of its contents by signs to a young man that was deaf and dumb; who then wrote every letter and point faithfully on a slate, which was shewn to the audience. Among the questions put to him was the following; the answer to which excited the reiterated plaudits of the auditors, accompanied by the tears of many of them.

The question was : "What is gratitude ?" The young man looked earnestly at his benefactor with tears in his eyes, placed his finger to his mouth, made a motion with his pencil as if he had been writing, kissed the skirts of the abbé Sicard's coat with rapture, then flew to his slate and wrote rapidly, "Gratitude is the recollection of the heart." Who could be present at this scene and remain unmoved ?

The institution for the blind was established by M. Haüy : they are here taught the art of printing (which they execute with great precision), every species of manual employment, reading, writing, arithmetic, foreign languages, geography, &c. All this is accomplished by raised work, or *relief*; and so acute is their sense of feeling, that they are seldom to be deceived when one work is presented to them instead of another. They also perform the most difficult pieces of music with great accuracy and taste. A museum has been properly allotted for the sale of a variety of articles finished by these poor people.

The following detail of the principal objects of annual consumption in this city, may be not wholly uninteresting. Paris is supposed to consume 193,271 head of horned cattle; 553,865 hogs; 400,000 sheep; 36,500 dozen of pigeons, besides an immense quantity of fowls; 100,000 hundred weight of salt-water fish, fresh and salted; 1,600,000 dozen of oysters, worth 300,000 francs (12,500*l.* sterling); the value of 1,002,000 francs (41,750*l.*) in fresh-water fish; 76,000 crawfish; wine to the value of 42,000,000 francs (1,750,000*l.*); brandy to the value of 6,400,000 francs (270,000*l.*); vinegar to the value of 460,000 francs (20,000*l.*); cyder to the same amount; 206,788,224 pounds of bread; 107,000 quarters of oats, and 42,500 of barley.

Paris is distant from Rome 280 leagues; Naples 322; Leghorn 204; Venice 230; Genoa 180; Milan 152; Turin 160; Constantinople 532; Basle 100; Petersburg 496; Prague 300; Vienna 280; Berlin 212; Dresden 212; Frankfort 110; Amsterdam 92; Stockholm 304; Copenhagen 240; London 90; Cadiz 360; Lisbon 340; and Madrid 250.

Nancy, Aug. 25, 1803.

I reached this place about a fortnight since, having preferred it to Geneva, for reasons which I stated to you in one of my former letters. In my journey down, I passed through Bondy, which is famous only for its beautiful

forest. Between Bondy and Meaux we traverse the plain celebrated for the march of the Swiss who, with Plyffer at their head, in 1567, escorted Charles IX. Catherine of Medicis, and all her attendants, back to Paris. Meaux has little else to attract the attention of the traveller, excepts its market-place and a fountain by Provins. Chateau Thierry possesses nothing remarkable: it was however the birth-place of La Fontaine. The neighbourhood of Epernay is famous for the delicious white and red champagne wine produced there. Chalons on the Marne has a very beautiful walk along the borders of that river: the Prussian patrols were close to this place in 1792, though it is only about forty-two leagues from Paris. Vitry on the Marne was founded by Francis I. after whom it was formerly named (*Vitry le François*). Bar is famous only for a particular kind of jelly, made from the inside of the curant, and boiled with sugar: it is sent to almost every part of France. The wine in this neighbourhood is light and pleasant when one is accustomed to it, as it possesses a singular flavour. Toul is a fortified town, but is considered of little consequence since the frontiers have been extended: the walks on its ramparts are very pretty; and its cathedral is worth attention for its antiquity, though it is a huge mass of stone without beauty.

As the vigilant eye of the police is constantly on the watch at Paris to scrutinize the actions of every foreigner, and penetrate, if possible, his most secret thoughts, I conceived it prudent to send you only one letter from the capital during my stay there. I shall still therefore occasionally give you particulars of the metropolis, though I am now at so great a distance from it. In speaking of the police, it is necessary to inform you, that in consequence of the First Consul's not having a very favourable idea of Fouchet's integrity, the principal direction of the civil police has been given to the grand-judge Regnier. I say *civil police*, as there are three distinct polices at Paris: the civil under Regnier; the military under general Junot; and the counter-police (as it is called) under Duroc, or rather under Buonaparte's immediate inspection. The object of this last is, to see that the other two perform their duty.

This diabolical system of spies is carried to such a height, that every action, almost every thought, inimical to the government, is registered; and resorted to as occasion may require, or caprice may dictate. In order to shew you how vigilant the police is, I need only mention a circumstance

which happened a short time since to a friend of mine. He came from the country late in the day, after an absence of many years from Paris; and on his arrival was invited by two of his most intimate friends to supper. In the course of the evening, the conversation turned upon the projected invasion of England; for you must know that Buonaparte already talks of landing among you. My friend, having passed many years there, stated, that from the observation he had made of our national love for our country, our natural antipathy to France, and various other reasons, he thought the success of such an attempt extremely improbable. After supper, he retired to his lodging at eleven o'clock: and the next day at eight in the morning, had a summons to attend the police-office, where every word that he had uttered the night before was repeated; and he was admonished not to hold a similar language in future, as it might involve him in serious trouble.

The multitude of people employed by the police is incredible; and many, it is lamentable to assert, of the highest birth. A number of returned emigrants, finding their property irrecoverable, have thrown themselves into the arms of the police, and engaged in this horrible business. Women of the first rank and manners, all whose actions once proved their detestation of the present order of things, are now the first to betray those who are imprudent enough to utter sentiments of loyalty to their unfortunate princes in exile. It is even said that Fouchet, when in office, obtained the knowledge of many an important secret through the means of an Indian shawl! When we consider the rage which now prevails among the Parisian ladies for this article of dress, and their inadequate means of purchasing it, we may believe the anecdote to be founded on truth.

On my arrival at Paris I had a favour to ask of the government, which was no less than that of being permitted to return to England. A friend of mine who undertook to solicit it for me, told me, that he would first learn at the police-office how I stood in their books: but when he returned from this inquiry, I perceived him out of spirits; and on my asking the reason, he informed me that there was a *black mark* against my name, in consequence of my having visited a prisoner in St. Pelagie a twelvemonth ago. At first I did not recollect the circumstance of my having gone to see poor G—— while he was confined there, of which I sent you an account at the time; but I soon

remembered that it was then registered in the prison-books, and I had now the mortification to find that a visit to a countryman in distress had been considered by the police as a high misdemeanor.

When we consider the very difficult game which the First Consul has had to play from the first moment of his taking the reins of government, when we reflect on the necessity of employing vigorous measures toward a people that have but just emerged from a state of anarchy, these precautions may be acknowledged as absolutely indispensable; and though the lover of rational liberty will complain at being thus oppressed, the politicians will not fail to commend the salutary vigour which now governs France. What I wrote last year, I now repeat; that Buonaparte is perfectly well acquainted with the nation under him, and rules them accordingly. When he first undertook to direct the operations of the mighty machine of government, every wheel of it was out of order: the political, as well as the ecclesiastical state of the country, was most deplorable; the public treasure exhausted by the most shameful pillage, the armies disorganized in a degree hardly to be described, and both jacobins and royalists seeking to destroy him. In such embarrassments, something like order has been established in the interior, the finances are gradually increasing, and religion has been restored. He has so mixed the royalist party with the jacobins, that one acts as a counterpoise to the other; while he holds the balance, and his maxim of "Divide and conquer" is carried into effect. In short, if his ambition does not blind his reason (as there is every reason to suppose that it will), he will be the most dangerous enemy that ever England had to deal with. How he has escaped hitherto in the midst of so many enemies, is one of the circumstances which have most excited our wonder in the course of the events that have taken place in France during our remembrance. It is the *fashion* in this country, to attribute his elevation to his good fortune; but any one who traces his career, will find that chance alone has not raised him to the situation which he now occupies. It requires vast physical as well as mental powers, to exist under the severe fatigues both of body and mind which he endures daily. If we consider that the most minute order is examined by him previous to its being put into execution, and at the same time reflect upon the infinite details necessary to carry on the motions of this vast piece of machinery; we shall be astonished that the life of one man

can be adequate to the arduous task. Every thing centres in this one man: his ministers, with the exception of Talleyrand and Berthier, are cyphers: the *form* of his government is perfectly indifferent; his will is the sole law of the land, and woe to the rash mortal who endeavours to set bounds to it! With such unlimited authority, and such talents to enforce it, there is no difficulty in asserting that few monarchs will be able to cope with the present ruler of France. When you reflect how much time is lost in deliberation by other states, and the contending parties that clog the wheels of their governments; and, on the other hand, behold the promptitude which gives vigour to every action of the First Consul; you may form some idea of the rival whom we have to oppose. With respect to us, the contest cannot be brought to an issue speedily: but such a command of men as Buonaparte possesses through the medium of the conscription, will prevent his contests with any of the powers on the continent from ever being on an equal footing; and if those powers do not adopt the same energetic means in levying recruits for their armies, the result of any struggle they may have with him in future may be easily foretold,

Nancy, Nov. 25, 1803.

I have not written to you for some time, in consequence of my being in very ill health, and still worse spirits. During the first month or two, we consoled ourselves with hoping that the violent measure which had been put into execution respecting the English, would be revoked when the First Consul should give himself time to reflect on the impolicy of it. But we were not so well acquainted as we are at present, with the obstinacy in which he perseveres when he has once laid down a line of conduct for himself. As long as I could indulge the prospect of shortly revisiting our native country, my heart did not fail me; but when the dreadful certainty presented itself to my mind, of passing *years* in captivity, I own I lost all my fortitude, and my health has considerably suffered from it. You must agree with me, that our situation is fully sufficient to make even the stoutest mind despond: should my letter therefore be expressed in terms suitable to my melancholy reflections, I trust you will make some allowance for the circumstances in which I am placed.

Before commencing my description of Nancy and its neighbourhood, it is necessary that I should mention to you

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many places in Paris, of which I did not send you an account from that city. Among others, the *Champ de Mars* deserves attention; not merely as a large place for the exercise of troops, but on account of the many interesting scenes which have passed within it. The most remarkable of them is the federation held there in 1790, on which occasion seats were erected for above three hundred thousand spectators. The ceremony, as I learn from persons who were present, was one of the most impressive that could possibly be exhibited to a great nation: it was no less than their monarch taking the oath of fidelity to the constitution, in the sight of his people at large. To this scene of concord and union, on the same spot succeeded scenes of blood; and with the versatility which characterizes the French nation in all their undertakings, to those succeeded chariot-races, horse-races, and public entertainments of every description.

The Mint is also well worth serious notice. It is situated on the bank of the Seine, opposite to the Louvre, and was commenced in 1771. It contains what is called the Museum of the Mines; or in other words, a collection of minerals so excellently arranged, that the mineralogist can here study with the greatest facility and improvement. It is open to the public every day, from nine till two o'clock. There is also another establishment in Paris, which cannot fail ultimately of being extremely beneficial to the nation; consisting of a collection of minerals and fossils, the production of France, disposed in admirable order. Vacancies are left for the different gradations, which are constantly supplied by agents of government who are exploring the mountains in search of ore of various descriptions. In separate apartments are the different ores of almost every nation, a comparison of which cannot fail to be instructive as well as amusing. France has gained very considerably in this branch of knowledge since the revolution, and now finds in her own bosom riches which she used formerly to draw entirely from other countries.

Besides the national, we find in Paris the pantheon, arsenal, and Mazarine libraries. With all these conveniences for study and reference, the Parisians ought to be extremely learned; yet it is remarked that most of the great writers of this country were natives of the different provinces. The pleasures of the metropolis are undoubtedly too enervating for the formation of eminent literary characters.

Before I quit the subject of Paris, it is necessary to say something of a very convenient body of men, called *restaurateurs*. Since the revolution, this class has increased in proportion as the fortunes of other individuals have diminished. Many now seek the aid of a *restaurateur*, who, before the troubles, used to keep a table of their own, where all the luxuries of life were set out to their numerous friends. On entering the house of the *restaurateur*, we perceive a number of tables arranged in great order; and when we are seated, the waiter presents us with a *carte* (bill of fare) having the price of each article annexed. The variety is very considerable, and we may ourselves determine to what price our dinners shall extend. The names given to the different dishes are often ludicrous enough: among others we often find cutlets *à la financière*, and *hîstek de veau*!* The difficulty of procuring victuals at home, obliged the French ladies, during the revolution, to frequent the houses of the *restaurateurs*: and the custom is not yet entirely abolished; but at first it shocks the eye of the English traveller, who has not been used to see his fair countrywomen taking their dinner in a box at a coffee-house.

After leaving our good friends the *restaurateurs*, I must next take you *pour faire la digestion*†, to saunter in the garden of the Tuilleries; where you will not only be delighted at the sight of the different groups of visitors which crowd the walks, but the delicious fragrance of the vast quantities of orange trees, the refreshing breeze of the evening, and the neatness with which the gardens are kept up, produce such a delicious sensation, that one always quits this enchanting place with regret. Without these gardens and the *Boulevards*‡, the Parisians could hardly support existence; and if to these I add the charming little spot Frascati, to which it was some time the fashion for every body to repair after the public amusements were over, you may form an idea of the different places where the Parisians recreate themselves during the excessive heat which is often felt in the city.

I would recommend you, when you are at Paris, to make excursions to Mendon, the valley of Montmorency, the *Bois de Boulogne*, St. Cloud, Versailles, Meudon, Vincennes,

* * Veal beefsteaks.

† To promote digestion.

‡ Ramparts,

cennes, Sceaux, St. Dennis, Passy, &c. These places will amply repay you for the trouble of riding to them.

There have often been great disputes respecting the comparative size and population of Paris and of London; but in my mind there does not exist a doubt on the subject. I have attentively viewed both; Paris from the top of the pantheon, and London from the cupola of St. Paul's: and I think Paris is certainly the least by a full third. Even supposing its population to be as considerable as that of London (which is not the case), my assertion would be found correct: as the streets of Paris are considerably narrower than those of London; besides which, it is not uncommon for eight or ten different families to live in the same house at Paris. Many writers have stated the population of Paris at 600,000 souls; but according to the enumeration just made by order of the government, it amounts to 547,756.

On considering the manner in which the Parisians are closely packed together, the filth of the generality of them, and the excessive heat which is experienced here during the months of July and August, we shall be astonished that they do not suffer by epidemical disorders more frequently than really happens. From the above circumstances, the ravage is dreadful when any thing of the kind does prevail.

Nancy, Jan. 24, 1804.

As I came to this place principally for retirement, and felt very little inclination to mix in society, some time elapsed before I got acquainted with many of the inhabitants. My sitting-room was nearly the extent of my domains; and my books alone were my liege subjects, over whom I could exercise unlimited controul. The plan succeeded very well for a short period; but this absolute sovereign became at length a dupe to his tyranny, fell sick, and was under the necessity of using his power with more moderation: he is now, thank heaven, restored to health; in consequence of being prevailed upon, to take a little more exercise, and fix his residence in a most respectable French family. To drop the allusion, I feel myself in better spirits; and by means of occupation in the morning, and society with a little music in the evening, endeavour to drive away the bitter thought that I am detained in this country by constraint. The people of Nancy were always fond of the English; and they consider the unwarrantable measure now enforced against them, as such a disgrace to the nation,

that they do every thing in their power, by kindness and attention toward the strangers, to clear themselves of the odium attending it.

Nancy contains about 30,000 inhabitants and consequently affords a variety of resources in respect to society. Before the revolution, it was considered as a second Paris; and in point of magnificence, of equipage, the brilliancy of its assemblies, and the superior *ton* which prevailed among its nobility, it might fairly vie with the metropolis. Since the troubles, the society of Nancy, in common with that of every town in France, is greatly reduced. We still meet however with the most respectable persons, of elegant manners though much reduced in their fortunes; and possessing all the agreeable vivacity of the ancient court, notwithstanding their disasters. With the exception of a very few individuals, the average of income among those who are classed as rich in this place, is from two to five hundred a year; and by deducting from this one-third, which government takes in various shapes, you may form an idea of the economy necessary in order to bring up a large family with the remainder. Yet such is the case, and I have often been astonished at the creditable appearance which these people maintain in their intercourse with each other.

The new town, which is one of the handsomest in Europe, was built by Stanislaus king of Poland, when governor of Lorraine, in the reign of Louis XV. The different institutions which he established here, the relief he afforded to the indigent, and the paternal care that regulated all his actions in the government of his subjects, prove his goodness of heart as a man, and his sound judgment as a sovereign. The provincial administration of Lorraine under Stanislaus, may be held up as a model to crowned heads; and proves how much good can be done even with a moderate revenue, if that revenue is expended with a wise economy. Though an exact account was kept of the expenditure, yet few monarchs were more munificent than the king of Poland: few could boast of more talent and wit united in their courts, than at his at Lunéville; and still fewer could enjoy the secret consolation of affording so much relief to the distressed, as was nightly felt by Stanislaus when he laid his head on his pillow. With all these claims to the gratitude of posterity, it is natural to conclude that the slightest work of such a man would have been revered, even in the midst of the most boisterous times; but the wretches whose object was to overturn every religious or moral estab-

lism, whose delight was to destroy every monument that recorded the gratitude of the subject to the sovereign, broke into a thousand pieces the statue which was erected by Stanislaus to the memory of his son-in-law Lewis XV. I wish that, for the honour of humanity, I could throw a veil over the sequel. This amiable prince, after the most excruciating death (being burnt by the accident of his clothes catching fire), was interred in a church at Bon Secours, a short distance from Nancy; and during the revolution, the remains of this munificent founder and benefactor of Nancy, this father of his people, this best of men and of sovereigns, were found in a common sewer.

The principal ornament of this place is a large square, formerly entitled *Place Royal*, afterward *Place du Peuple*, *Place Marat*, *Place de la Republique*, and now *Place Napoleon*; from which we perceive, through a triumphal arch of great elegance, the government-house, at the end of another handsome square called *Place Carrière*. The town is also adorned by a very beautiful walk leading from the former, and called *la Pépinière*; as well as *Place d' Alliance*, and a number of wide commodious streets running at right angles to each other. This regularity is a striking contrast to all the other towns in France which I have seen. The old town of Nancy is irregular; its streets are narrow, and not the most *fragrant* in the world. The river Meurthe, which gives name to the department, runs close to this town, and adds very much to the picturesque appearance of the neighbourhood: at about two leagues distance, it forms a junction with the Moselle, and united they form a respectable stream.

The character of the inhabitants of this department savours much of the German, consequently we do not observe so much fire in their composition as we meet with in the inhabitants of the south of France. It was in a great measure owing to this apathy, that the people of Lorraine did not commit such atrocities as many of their more southern neighbours. They were however, to use a French expression, "*travaillés*" by the emissaries of the revolutionary tribunal, who were guilty of so many excesses in the different provinces. Almost all the horrors that were exercised here were the work of a band of marauders from Marseilles, who like the cutting north-east wind, blighted every thing it

their passage. At the commencement of the revolution, the king's regiment in garrison here with the Swiss regiment of Châteaueux, were the first to give the signal of revolt; and when the marquis de Bouillie marched against them at the head of the national guards who remained attached to Lewis at Metz, the slaughter was dreadful. The heroic conduct of a young officer named Desilles, ought to be recorded by every person who writes on this subject. The army with M. de Bouillie at the head, was at the entrance of the town in a narrow road leading to the gate facing Metz. Behind this gate the insurgent regiments had planted a cannon loaded with grape. The gate was on the point of being thrown open: the match was lighted, and the soldier was in the act of applying it to the loaded piece; when young Desilles threw himself upon the gun, prevented the destruction of many of his countrymen, and met with a glorious death from the hands of his own soldiers.—This gate is at the end of the *Place de Grève*, which is now being ornamented with plantations; and which, when finished, will add considerably to the beauty of the town.

• *Nancy, May 6, 1804*

The subject on which I am about to enter, is no less than a description of the nature of the government, the population, and the finances of this country; so that you may readily conceive some little precaution to be necessary on my part, before I commit my observations to paper. I should have reserved my remarks of this nature till my return to England, if I could possibly foresee the happy moment when I may once more behold our favoured island; but even that consolation is denied us. That you may be enabled to satisfy your curiosity therefore before we meet, I shall send you this by a person on the point of going to *Hamburgh*; who will take charge of it as far as that place, and then transmit it to you through the regular channel.

With respect to the government, the whole power of the executive part of it rests, as I stated to you before, with the First Consul; but he has formed a system of legislature in which the people have a shadow of participation. The first-consulship is for life, with the power of naming a successor: the second and third consulships are also for life, but the First Consul appoints to these offices. The council of state, composed of fifty members, is also nominated by

him: as well as his ministers, who are eight in number, and removable according to his caprice.

Every new law must be proposed by orators appointed by the First Consul, to an assembly composed of fifty persons, of twenty-five years of age at least, called the tribunate, who debate upon it. The merits of these proposed laws are then discussed by the orators of the tribunate and those of the First Consul together, before the legislative body, composed of 308 members, who must be thirty years of age at least; and who decree or reject them, without discussion on their part, in a secret committee. The government (that is, the First Consul) may withdraw any proposal made by its orators, in whatever stage it may be.

One-fifth of the legislative body is renewed every year, and one half of the Tribunate every three years; the new members being chosen by the conservative senate, from lists presented to them by the electoral colleges of the different departments, whose members hold their appointment for life. These electoral colleges are chosen by other electoral colleges (of districts, called in French *arrondissements*); which are elected by the assemblies of cantons, consisting of every housekeeper. It is necessary here to observe, that the First Consul nominates the president of each assembly of the cantons; which president names the person appointed to scrutinize the votes, and also the secretary who registers them. These assemblies are convoked or dismissed by order of the First Consul; who, has the power also to nominate ten members to each electoral college of the districts, and twenty to each college of the departments.

The conservative senate, composed of eighty members who must be at least forty years of age, is an appointment for life. Their nomination takes place in the following manner. The First Consul presents three candidates to the senate, who decide on the choice: or sometimes, when he is pleased with the proceedings of the different branches of the legislature, he names only one, permitting the tribunate to offer a second candidate, and the legislative body a third; the first of whom, for very important reasons, is also preferred to the other two. These candidates must

* The grand-judge, minister of justice; the minister of the interior; the minister of finance; the minister of the public treasury; the minister of war; the directing minister of the war department, for the payment of the troops; the minister of the marine; and the minister for foreign affairs.

be selected from the lists formed by the electoral colleges of the departments. The First Consul however, without consulting the senate or the electoral colleges, can appoint as member of the senate any person who has attained the age prescribed by law, provided he does not make the number exceed a hundred and twenty. These senators may be appointed ministers, ambassadors, &c. or have a senatorial pension worth about twenty or twenty-five thousand francs a year,* conferred on them. The senate cannot proceed to business without the permission of the First Consul: except for the regulation of its own police, in which case the proceedings are called only deliberations; or for the nomination of a member to the legislative body, to the tribunate, or to the tribunal of cassation, which is entitled a resolution.

With respect to their *senatus-consulta* (or decrees), these can only originate in an order of the First Consul, after the subjects have been discussed by his privy-council. By such decrees the senate have the power of annulling, adding to, or suspending any law; of dissolving the legislative body or the tribunate; and of declaring void any judgment pronounced by the civil or criminal tribunals, when they deem such a measure for the good of the state.

The First Consul therefore, having always a decided majority in the conservative senate, can carry whatever law he may think proper to propose, or suspend the regular administration of justice if he thinks it for his interest to do so. The government is now occupied in framing a new civil and criminal code: and in the mean time, even the most sanguinary laws that were framed under the direction of Marat and Robespierre, remain unrepealed; and may be resorted to whenever it is judged necessary to appal the nation by a proof that the executive power is still enabled to adopt vigorous measures.

The First Consul has the right of reprieve; but with the exception of this prerogative, and that of the senate, the tribunal of cassation exercises supreme judiciary authority. This tribunal has power to censure or regulate the tribunal of appeal, as well as the criminal tribunal; to annul their judgments when it conceives them to be contrary to law or to established usage; and even to suspend the judges for a time: but it is necessary to observe, that whenever the First Consul thinks proper, the grand-judge, minister of justice,

presides at it. There are also for certain crimes and misdemeanours, special tribunals, whose judgments are not liable to be brought before any tribunal of appeal, and the formation of which is organized by the First Consul. All the judges hold their appointment for life, and are nominated by the First Consul. The justices of the peace, with a moderate salary, are also appointed by him, and removed at his pleasure. The civil governor of each department is called a prefect: and consults in all difficulties a council, called a council of prefecture; composed of five, four, or three members, according to the size and importance of the respective departments. There is also a general council of the department, composed of twenty-four, twenty, or sixteen members, held every year in order to examine the proceedings of the prefect, regulate the most important affairs of the department, and report the state of it to the minister of the interior. In every district there is a sub-prefect, who also has a council composed of eleven members. Each town or village too has its mayor and council, called municipality. In large places, the mayor is assisted by one or two assessors, styled adjuncts: these direct the commissaries of the police, whose number is regulated according to the population of the place. There is a justice of the peace in every canton, and in Paris there are forty-eight. A justice of the peace cannot come to any resolution without consulting at least two assistants.*

With respect to the population of a country that is daily extending its limits, it is difficult to speak. Some authors assert that of France to be thirty millions, others thirty-one, others thirty-two, and some go so far as to assure us that it amounts to thirty-six millions. There is every reason to believe that the truth lies between the first and the last statement, and I think it may be about thirty-three millions. In order to give you some idea of the number of soldiers that can be raised out of this immense population, I shall state the result of Daru's calculations on the recruiting of the armies:

The first levy <i>en masse</i> produced	250,000
The levy in 1793	194,000
The requisition	400,000
The conscription in the year 8.	342,776

Total 1,186,766

* Since the coronation of Buonaparte, there have been but few alterations in the form of government: instead of First Consul, we have only to substitute the title of Emperor, in the above statement.

He observes also that in imminent danger, France might choose out of six millions of young men capable of bearing arms. If the conscription is followed up, in the course of a very few years France might bring into the field nearly a million of soldiers!

TABLE,

Shewing the population and extent of each department, and the number of individuals *per* square league; not including the island of Elbe, and Piedmont.

Departments.	Square leagues.	Population.	Population of each square league.
Ain -----	289	284,455	985
Aisne -----	379	430,628	1,136
Allier -----	365	272,616	747
Alps (lower) -----	373	140,121	376
Alps (upper) -----	251	118,322	471
Alps (maritime) -----	160	87,671	544
Ardèche -----	299	267,523	895
Ardennes -----	278	264,036	953
Arrière -----	244	191,693	785
Aube -----	305	240,661	789
Aude -----	324	226,198	698
Aveyron -----	474	328,195	692
Calvados -----	288	480,317	1,668
Cantal -----	294	237,224	807
Charente -----	286	321,477	1,124
Charente (lower) -----	355	402,105	1,133
Cher -----	369	214,297	592
Correze -----	299	213,654	815
Creuse -----	288	216,255	751
Dordogne -----	451	410,350	910
Doubs -----	251	227,075	908
Drôme -----	311	231,188	757
Dyle -----	184	363,956	1,978
Escaut -----	153½	595,258	3,865
Eure -----	307	413,574	1,354
Eure and Loire -----	300	259,967	866
Finisterre -----	343	474,349	1,383
Forests -----	340	225,549	663

Departments.	Square leagues.	Population.	Population of each square league.
Gard.....	292	309,052	1,058
Garonne (upper).....	373	432,263	1,159
Gers.....	339	291,845	861
Gironde.....	537	519,585	968
Gold-coast.....	445	347,842	781
Golo.....	256	103,466	404
Hérault.....	317	291,957	921
Ille and Vilaine.....	347	488,605	1,408
Indre.....	352	207,911	591
Indre and Loire.....	373	278,758	747
Isère.....	286	441,208	1,543
Jemmappe.....	220½	412,129	1,872
Jura.....	256	269,865	1,132
Landes.....	468	228,889	489
Léman.....	129	215,884	1,678
Liamone.....	228	63,347	277
Loire and Cher.....	319	211,152	662
Loire.....	244	292,588	1,199
Loire (upper).....	244	237,901	975
Loire (lower).....	352	368,506	1,047
Loiret.....	224	289,728	1,294
Lot.....	362	383,683	1,060
Lot and Garonne.....	285	352,908	1,274
Lozère.....	260	155,936	579
Lys.....	207	470,707	2,274
Manche.....	318	528,912	1,663
Marne.....	405	310,493	766
Marne (upper).....	315	225,350	715
Mayenne.....	266	328,397	1,234
Mayenne and Loire.....	370	376,033	1,016
Meurthe.....	310	342,107	1,103
Meuse.....	318	275,898	867
Meuse (lower).....	190½	232,662	1,225
Mont Blanc.....	330	283,106	858
Mont Tonnère.....	277	342,316	1,239
Morbihan.....	328	425,485	1,297
Moselle.....	328	353,788	1,079
Mouths of the Rhone.....	298	320,072	1,074
Nèthes (two).....	143	249,376	1,743
Nièvre.....	352	251,158	713
North.....	278	774,450	2,786
Northern coasts.....	353	499,927	1,416
Oise.....	298	369,086	1,238

Departments.	Square leaguess.	Population.	Population of each square league.
Orne.....	310	397,931	1,284
Ourthe.....	213	313,876	1,474
Puy-de-Dôme.....	365	508,444	1,393
Pyrenées (lower).....	388	385,703	994
Pyrenées (upper).....	235	206,680	879
Pyrenées (eastern).....	212	117,764	555
Rhine (lower).....	268	444,858	1,660
Rhine (upper).....	240	382,258	1,594
Rhine and Moselle.....	290	203,290	700
Rhône.....	135	345,644	2,560
Roer.....	259	516,287	1,993
Sambre and Meuse.....	229	165,192	721
Saône (upper).....	235½	287,461	1,223
Saône and Loire.....	434	447,565	1,031
Sarre.....	244	219,049	906
Sarthe.....	306	387,106	1,265
Seine.....	24	629,763	26,165
Seine (lower).....	357	642,773	1,800
Seine and Marne.....	300	298,815	995
Seine and Oise.....	286	429,523	1,502
Sèvres (two).....	305	242,658	795
Somme.....	312	465,034	1,490
Straits of Calais.....	328	566,061	1,726
Tarn.....	269	272,163	1,012
Var.....	378	269,142	712
Vaucluse.....	116	190,180	1,639
Vendée.....	373	270,271	725
Vienne.....	344	250,807	729
Vienne (upper).....	288	259,795	902
Vosges.....	295	308,052	1,044
Yonne.....	373	339,278	909
Total.....	30,505	*33,111,962	1,083,437

But to go more into detail respecting the population of this immense country, I will send you the remarks of a very ingenious French author, which I have found to be in general correct on the subject. He gives an account of the population of most of the towns, and has divided them into five classes: with the exception of Paris, which is spoken of separately; and whose population, as I stated to you in one of my former letters, amounts to 547,756 individuals.

* The island of Elbe, and Piedmont, would have made this sum 34,976,313.

His first class is, of towns that have from seventy to above a hundred and twenty thousand inhabitants; second, from fifty to seventy thousand; third, from thirty to fifty thousand; fourth, from twenty to thirty thousand; fifth, from twelve to twenty thousand.

Among the towns of the first class, he enumerates Marseilles, which contains 96,400 inhabitants; Bordeaux, 90,900; and Lyons, 88,919. The office of longitude, however, in its publication for this year, states the population of Marseilles at 108,374; that of Bordeaux at 104,676; and that of Lyons at 102,167. The principal author of the General and particular Statistics of France makes the population of Bordeaux amount to 112,800 individuals, Marseilles 111,000, and Lyons 109,500. When I consider the decrease of commerce at the two former places, and the dreadful massacres that took place at the other during the revolution, I am inclined to think that even the first statement is exaggerated. But to proceed with our author's observations: After these three towns, he mentions Rouen as containing from 84,300 to 87,000 inhabitants. The port of Nantes, consisting of 77,000, is the last of the old towns in France which can be comprised in this class; but on traversing the Alps we find Turin, the capital of "Italian France," which contains 75,000.

Among the second class we find Brussels, the capital of Brabant, containing 66,200; Antwerp 62,000; and Ghent, 56,000. Ghent is remarkable for its extent, its active industry, its tanneries, its manufactures of thread, iron, and wooden articles; and also for its prison, which has been so ably described by the virtuous Howard, who places it above that of Vilvorde. Lisle contains 54,700: the bombardment in 1792 has almost entirely destroyed the quarter called St. Saviour; and the frontiers of France being extended on that side, it has lost the greatest part of its commerce, and consequently much of its riches and splendour. The town of Liege, formerly the capital of a small independant state, situated at the junction of the Ourthe and the Meuse, is built on their banks: it is one of the French towns of the most commerce and the greatest industry, and contains 50,000 souls. Thoulouse, the famous capital of Languedoc, though fallen from its ancient splendour, contains 51,000: this city is spacious, and situated in a fine plain on the banks of the Garonne; the streets are generally wide and well built, and there are still to be seen in them the remains of Roman antiquities.

In the third class we find Strasburg, containing 49,000 inhabitants; Orleans, 41,000; and Amiens, 40,000. In this last place there are several manufactories, and its inhabitants are industrious: it also has a cathedral, which is one of the finest Gothic monuments to be met with in France; and a walk called L'Autoy deserves particular mention. Nismes contains 39,500, and rivals Marseilles in point of antiquity. Cologne, formerly an imperial town, and celebrated even from the time of the Romans, contains 38,800. Metz contains 3,000: this was an imperial town under Charles V. and was taken in 1662 by Henry II. King of France; the Jews who settled here, and a remaining portion of whom are still to be met with, contributed considerably to the prosperity which this place enjoyed during the sixteenth century. Caen, in Normandy, contains 34,000; Bruges, 33,600; Angiers, 33,000; Montpellier, 33,900; Rheims, Clermont, Besançon, and Alexandria in Piedmont, close the list of the third class. Rheims contains 32,000 inhabitants: it is more celebrated for its extent than for its population; the streets are spacious, and the houses well constructed; it has a great number of manufactures of various stuffs, veils, &c. The dry chalky soil on which this city is built, has afforded its inhabitants the means of constructing with very little trouble extremely large cellars; where most of the wine produced in Champagne is deposited, and undergoes very great adulteration before it is sold to the public. Clermont, the ancient capital of Auvergne, contains 30,000 inhabitants: its streets are narrow, and its houses dark; but its squares and walks are beautiful: a sort of woollen stuff called *ratine*, also linen and ribbon, are manufactured here. Besançon, the ancient capital of Franche-comté, contains 30,000. Alexandria has acquired fresh importance in consequence of its new fortifications: if there is no error in the last statement made of its population, this amounts to 30,000; previous however to its union with France, it contained only 12,000.

In the fourth class, Nancy contains 29,700, and Versailles about 25,000: the "solitary pomp" (*pompe solitaire*) of the latter, forces even the most frivolous mind to meditation. Brest contains 27,000: its road is able to receive five hundred ships of the line, but the entrance is rendered narrow and difficult by rocks and shoals. Dunkirk contains about 22,000 inhabitants; Rennes, the capital of Brittany, about 26,000; and Troyes, the ancient capital of Champagne, 23,000: its houses, in consequence of the great scarcity

of stone, are nearly all constructed of wood. The town (formerly imperial) of Aix-la-Chapelle, famous for its mineral springs, contains 23,400; many causes have made this place less splendid than formerly; among others, one of the principal was the great frost, which destroyed most of its olive-trees. Geneva, formerly an independant republic, but now the capital of the department of Lemani, contains about 23,000; Montauban, whose prosperity was considerably augmented in consequence of the refuge which it afforded to the Calvinists, 22,000; and Avignon, 21,000. This last place has often changed its rulers: it belonged successively, after the fall of the Roman empire, to the kings of Italy, to the Bourguignons, to the Ostrogoths, to the Franks, to Charlemagne, and to the emperors of Germany: it passed afterward to the counts of Provence; and then acquired independance in the twelfth century, and government by its own magistrates. Lewis VIII. next became its master, then the counts of Toulouse and Poitiers. Jane of Naples sold it to the Pope in 1348, when it suffered dreadfully by a plague, which took off a third of its inhabitants, and among others the celebrated Laura. It were to be wished that a veil could be drawn over the horrors which succeeded its reunion to France; horrors which were nearly as destructive as the plague itself, and presented a still more hideous picture,—a picture of human ferocity in the last stage of depravity. Avignon is subject to great floods, produced by the overflowings of the Rhone and the Durance, which have frequently destroyed a part of the town. The first on record was in 1226: that in 1755 did great damage, but the most tremendous took place in 1801. Mentz, the ancient capital of the archbishopric of that name, and situated at the junction of the Rhine and the Maine, contains 22,000 inhabitants. With the exception of one good street, Mentz is badly constructed; its houses being gloomy and ill distributed, and loaded with superfluous balconies and iron gratings. Grenoble, the ancient capital of Dauphiny, is supposed to contain 23,500: it stands on the Isère; and has manufactures of linen, hats, and remarkably fine gloves. Dijon, formerly the capital of Burgundy, and which has distinguished itself of late years for its cultivation of the arts and sciences, comprises 21,000 individuals. The place wears the appearance of having seen better days: its church, called Notre Dame is remarkable for the lightness and elegance of its structure. Limoges contains at least 20,500: its commerce consists of

horses, oxen, &c.; and it has manufactures of linen and porcelain. Tours contains about 22,000: this place, where the kings of France frequently used to reside, was formerly very flourishing, but is now in a state of decay. Toulon, the most important port in the Mediterranean, contains 22,500 inhabitants; Dieppe, 20,000; L'Orient, which was commenced only in 1730, contains 20,000; Arras and St. Omers about the same number each; Tournay, and Asti in Piedmont, about 21,000 each.

The number of towns in the fifth class is still more considerable. Abbeville, on the banks of the Somme, contains 13,100 inhabitants: this place owes its prosperity to its manufactory of cloth, established in 1665 by Vanrobais, a Dutchman. Louvain, on the Dyle, contains about 19,000; and Mons, 19,000: the riches of the latter consist of its coal-mines. Valenciennes, formerly a frontier town, and famous for its lace, contains about 17,200; Douay, 18,000; and Le Mans about 17,200: this last place suffered dreadfully during the war of La Vendée. Poitiers, the ancient capital of Poitou, contains 18,200: it is badly constructed, and nearly surrounded by rocks. The rivers Clain and Boivre run close to the east and west sides of its walls, and render the approach to them very picturesque. It offers to the antiquarian numerous remains of Roman edifices. Nice, the purity of whose air is so well known, contains 18,400; Verceil in Piedmont, 18,300; La Rochelle, celebrated for its famous defence by the Calvinist in 1627, contains 18,000. Bourges, which is considered as the central town of France, contains 15,300: its cathedral, which was constructed in the seventh century, is rendered curious by the variety distinguishable in its architecture. Namur contains 17,000: Ypres, about 15,000; Maestricht, 17,900; Malines, famous for its lace, 16,800; and Havre-de-grace, 16,000. Below these the towns begin to be difficult to class; in consequence of the slight difference between their respective population, and the incorrectness of the only documents that can be procured. Savillian (or Savigliano) in Piedmont appears to contain about 17,500; Coni, 16,500; Casal, about 15,000; Carcassone, 15,200; Castres, 15,300; Niort, enriched by its manufactures of shamoy and woollen articles, 16,000; Saint Stephen in the Forests, famous for its manufacture of arms, 16,200; Courtray, celebrated for its fine linen, Cambray for its cambric, Chartres for its beautiful steeple, Falaise in Normandy, and Laval, contain each at least 14,000, but not above 15,000. Blois contains 13,200;

Angoulême, 14,800; Beziers, 14,500; Mondovi in Piedmont, 14,000; and Moulins, about 13,200: this last is celebrated for its cutlery, the beautiful tomb of Montmorency, its barracks, and a walk called the Course of Bercy. Alençon, Colmar, and Bayonne, about 13,000 each: the last is both a fortified place and a sea-port; its citadel was constructed by Vauban: a sandbank renders the entrance to its harbour rather difficult. Salie contains about 7,000: it is remarkable for a salt spring, which is a source of wealth to the inhabitants. Beauvais contains 12,400; Riom, 12,300; Grasse, 12,500; and Auxerre, 12,500.

We thus find that France possesses six towns of the first class, six of the second, fourteen of the third, twenty-three of the fourth, and forty of the fifth; eleven of which last include above 18,000 inhabitants each.

It is necessary to observe, that the foregoing calculations are founded on documents which are extremely imperfect; but they will afford a facility of comparing the *relative* population of the French towns.

A sixth class might be made of places which, however, from their small importance, hardly deserve the name of towns. But there are some of these, which from particular causes deserve being mentioned. Pau, though it contains no more than 9,000 inhabitants, should be noticed on account of its ancient splendour, and the ideas which it recalls of Henry IV. Chambery, the former capital of Savoy, contains 10,300. Cherbourg, Calais, and Boulogne, merit attention, though the largest of them has not above 10,000 inhabitants. Nevers and Issoudun contain about 10,000 each. The ancient towns of Autun in Burgundy, Saintes the capital of Saintonge, and Valence and Vienne in Dauphiny, do not contain more than 11,000 each. Narbonne, the ancient capital of a Roman province, has not above 9,000; Auch, which is remarkable for its cathedral (one of the finest in France), about 8,000; Perpignan, 11,000; Albi, on the Tarn, famous for the council held there in 1176, contains 9,600; Puy, about 10,650; Mulhausen, included in the department of the Rhine, contains 6,000; Luxembourg, so renowned for its fortifications, 10,000; the ancient town of Treves, about 9,000; and Coblenz, nearly 11,000.

I have thus, my dear friend, endeavoured to set before you the comparative population of the different towns of this vast republic. But it is necessary to add the population of the Italian Republic, of which Buonaparte is president;

computed by some at 3,822,395, and by others at about 4,000,000; also the population of Holland, which is at his disposal, reckoned at 1,881,881 by Etienne, though Pinkerton estimates it at 2,758,632.

Respecting the revenue of this country, it is impossible to form an exact calculation, as the means of its exterior resources are unknown. In the last *budget*, the revenue was stated at seven hundred millions of francs;* of which we find above a hundred and twenty-three millions † under the articles "extraordinary means" and "extraordinary and exterior receipts." Many well informed persons with whom I have conversed on this subject, say that the revenue is much more considerable than it is thus stated to be; but, from the First Consul's character, I am inclined to think that his account would rather be an exaggeration of the resources of the country.

What are called here "direct and indirect contributions," arise from taxes on the lands, on doors and windows, and on patents; revenue arising from national domains, *hypothèques et enregistrement* (a percentage paid to government on the transfer of lands), customs, lotteries, stamps, salt-pits, and coinage. These amount to 551 millions; ‡ but from this sum are to be deducted 21,534,960 francs, ¶ which the different departments contributed towards the prosecution of the war. The rest, except the sum arising from the money which the civil officers are obliged to deposit in the hands of government as their security, is accounted for above; the total making up the seven hundred millions.

The interest of the national debt, including annuities and pensions granted, amounts to the sum of 82,075,517 francs; § and the number of individuals who receive those provisions, is 306,616. But in this calculation the debt belonging to Piedmont is not included, which amounts to 2,677,277 francs; || besides 500,000 francs in annuities,** and one million for pensions. ††

The revenues of the ancient monarchy of France amounted, according to the statement of M. Necker, to 475,294,027 livres. ‡‡ The expences of the state, on the same authority, exceeded that sum by 56,149,973 livres, ¶¶ and consequently amounted to 531,444,000 livres. §§ The interest of the

* Nearly 29,170,000*l.* sterling. † 5,125,000*l.* ‡ 22,960,000*l.* .

¶ 897,270*l.* § 3,419,813*l.* || 111,553*l.* ** 20,833*l.*

†† 41,666*l.* ‡‡ About 19,800,000*l.* ¶¶ About 2,340,000*l.*

§§ 22,143,500*l.*

national debt he stated at 162,486,000.* The state, however, was also burthened with the interest of sums borrowed by anticipation of the ensuing taxes, and these sums amounted to 76,892,000;† and there were 29,560,000 livres‡ of pensions, not included in the account of the national debt.

According to a statement lately published by the government, it pays the sum of 87,403,766 francs§ annually for the interest of the national debt, for pensions, for the interest of the different securities, and for the sum allotted for the reduction of the debt; which amount, deducted from the seven hundred millions said to be the present revenue, leaves them a surplus of 612,596,234 francs.§

Before I quit this subject, I think the following calculations are worth inserting: M. Arnauld states, that during the revolution, there were two millions of livres in gold and silver in France.¶ He estimates the number of French acres in cultivation under the old government, at 102 millions; and their net produce at 1,926 millions,** the produce of the manufactories at 305 millions,†† and the rent of houses at 300 millions‡‡

I have now stated to you what I have been able to collect respecting the nature of the government, its population, and its finances. You have thus the outlines of the picture; and with the assistance of those friends of yours who know the country, added to that of the authors who have written more fully on the subject, you will be enabled to fill up the canvas. Would to heaven I were by your side to prepare the pallet!

Nancy, Sept. 3, 1804.

I have somewhere met with an author who, in describing the French, says: "*Le grand caractère est bien plus rare parmi les Français, que l'homme d'esprit. Il sont bien plus susceptibles de galanterie que d'amour, de plaisir que de bonheur, et de bravoure que de courage.*"§§

From what I have been able to collect, this is a faithful picture; though I would have it understood there are many exceptions in it. The same versatility which renders them

* About 6,770,250l.

† About 3,203,833l.

‡ About 1,231,000l.

§ About 2,642,000l.

§ Nearly 23,530,000l.

|| 84,000l.

** 80,250,000l.

†† 21,047,000l.

‡‡ 12,500,000l.

§§ "The character of greatness is far more rare among the French than that of genius; they are much more susceptible of gallantry than love, of pleasure than happiness, and of boldness than courage."

men of easy address and polished wit (*"l'homme d'esprit"*), prevents them from attaining that solid judgment which constitutes the great man (*"le grand caractère"*). If we may judge from their want of discretion in talking of their amours, and the infamous manner in which they speak of females of every description, (I am now alluding to young Frenchmen,) the second observation will be found to be accurate. Respecting the third, we have only to see the number of those in this country who procure themselves pleasure, and compare them with the very few who are really happy, and we shall find that the account is not exaggerated. The last remark is founded on the impetuosity with which the French soldier attacks, and his discouragement when once defeated.

The want of education which the French youth have experienced for the last ten years, has been greatly detrimental to the society of this and every other town in France. The consequence is, that we meet with very few young men who are in the habit of frequenting the good company of the place. They pass all their mornings in the coffee-houses, where smoking is permitted (a custom which they have contracted since their campaigns in Germany), and at the billiard-table; and this is repeated after dinner till the playhouse is opened. They are almost all *abonnés*; that is, they subscribe a small sum for admission by the week, month, quarter, or year. This is their grand resource, instead of improving their manners by mixing with people of respectability. Another amusement which has always been resorted to with avidity in this country, but never so much as at the present moment, is gaming; from the man of fortune who stakes fifty louis at *rouge-et-noir*, to the poor wretch who sells his coat for fifty *sous* to purchase a lottery-ticket. This must ever be the case where the means of gaming are so profusely bestowed on the people as in this country: lotteries are drawing every month; and tickets are sold so low, that the meanest individual can procure one for less than a shilling. The consequence is natural: the mother deprives her family of food to procure a chance; the servant robs his master to try his luck; while those in higher life often puts an end to their existence, after having ruined themselves in this diabolical lure. In every great town the government licenses gaming-houses, where people of fashion, merchants and bankers, men and women, may impoverish themselves according to law. The gaming-houses throughout France

are contracted for in the same way as you would contract for a loan in England: I am told that one person at this moment has the whole mass of these abominable institutions under his management, for which he pays to government an enormous sum. Formerly it often happened that people came masked to the gaming-table, under an apprehension that if their features were discovered they might lose their reputation; and in the time of the duke of Richelieu's residence at Bordeaux, numbers of merchants of otherwise great respectability ruined themselves under this fatal disguise: but now the thing is done more openly, and the title of *joueur* (professed gamester) is no longer considered as a disgrace. There are individuals even of the first families who keep licensed public gaming-houses, preside at their own play-table, and consequently are liable to the abuse of every vagabond who chooses to risk his thirty *sous*: yet these persons are received into the first circles of society in France.

An Englishwoman would be much shocked at being informed, on entering a room, that such a lady had been divorced, that another was publicly living with the gentleman by her side, and that a third intrigued openly with the person who was playing with her fan; yet such would she meet with very frequently, and she go into company in this country. I hear indeed that they are purifying by degrees; but that during the revolution, if they had debarred themselves the company of people of the above description, they might have been left entirely alone. Nothing contributed so much to the immorality of the time, as the facility with which married people procured a divorce during the revolution; at last it was merely necessary for this purpose, that the two parties should declare before a magistrate that their tempers did not agree: thus it was not unusual, I understand, to find men and women who had been married five or six times within a twelvemonth. Now, however, a divorce is attended with more difficulty; and the government has wisely turned its thoughts to that subject, justly reflecting on the importance of preventing an evil which tended so much to the immorality of the people. Formerly divorce was incompatible with those who professed themselves of the Roman Catholic faith; but owing to the *passive* dispositions of the French husbands, of those times, and the *understanding* that existed between them and their wives, it was hardly necessary. Domestic comfort did not enter into their calculations on entering into matrimony: the

families agreed on the match before the meeting of the parties, and every thing was arranged, when *mademoiselle* was sent for from the convent; and after the *trousseau* (wedding-dress) was prepared, she was often united to a man old enough to be her grandfather. It is unnecessary for me to state the natural result of such an union. Women now receive an education more suitable to beings destined to pass their days in society. Anciently the convent gave them a taste for the rankest bigotry; or so disgusted them with religious ceremonic, that when they entered the world they had nothing like religion or principle in their composition. The essential rudiments of French education at present are dancing and music; the first of which is considered as indispensably necessary, and other acquirements must be neglected if the pupil does not possess an apt talent for the capering art. I am informed even that the young ladies who are now under the hands of their tutors, will be able to write their own language with tolerable accuracy. This gives me great pleasure; for I know many Frenchwomen of the old school, who received what was once considered as a very liberal education, and speak their language with great purity and elegance, yet write and spell worse than an English cook-maid might be expected to do.

Before I close this letter, I must remark how grossly ignorant people of almost every description are, respecting the manners, religion, and government of England. I have really heard some that had had a comparatively good education make remarks upon my own nation, which I thought it degrading to myself to refute, and which could only be produced by the most unpardonable want of information. Among other *equally sensible* observations on the same subject, a French general now employed, stated that he had paid particular attention to the geography of England, and had discovered to his great surprise that Scotland was separated from it by the Irish channel! You may easily suppose that I did not deceive him. This general very gravely informed us, that in case of an invasion of England, he expected to have a particular command: he did not state the nature of it; but I had a strong inclination to tell him that from his complete *knowledge* of the country, he ought to be landed on its northern coast, in order to cut off all communication with Scotland.

This was one of the field-officers whom we now so frequently meet, that have been raised from the ranks, yet

such men, from their thorough knowledge of the details of military operations, prove better commanders than their opponents, who have learnt the art of war theoretically only.

Nancy, Apr. 1, 1804.

In consequence of the very *disobliging* manners of our English cruizers, the external commerce of this country is nearly annihilated; and the principal inhabitants of Dunkirk, Nantes, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, Marseilles, &c. are almost ruined. The people of this country are not quite decided whether it is the ambition of our government or their own that has led to this unfortunate rupture, though they begin to see a little more clearly of late on this subject, than they did at the time of the commencement of hostilities. According to the work which I have before quoted,* this nation in 1787 employed 2,007,000 tons of shipping in the exportation of goods from its different ports; and the value of its exports in that year amounted to the following sums:

	LIVRES
Produce of its soil of every description . . .	311,472,000
Produce of its industry	251,132,000
Total	542,604,000†

How small a portion of this sum now remains to the benefit of France, may easily be conceived from the cause above-stated.

Buonaparte is endeavouring to counterpoise, in a certain degree, the ill effects arising from the loss of his external traffic, by projecting canals which, if ever they are finished, will greatly facilitate the interior navigation of this immense empire. The following are the principal ones in contemplation:

1. The canal which is to supply Paris with water from the river Ourcq: this is in a state of forwardness. It is then to be continued to Rouen, and thence to Dieppe: a communication between the latter place and Paris will be the result, without the necessity of going up the Seine, which is not at all times safe.

* Vol. i. page 148.

† 12,978,000*l.* sterling.
9,630,500*q.*

22,608,500*l.*

2. The canal of the Ardennes. This canal is intended to connect the Meuse with the Aine by means of the river Bar. The Rhine will thus communicate with the ocean by the Meuse, Bar, Aine, Oise, and Seine; which will facilitate the transportation of Dutch merchandize through France, as well as wood from the forest of Ardennes.

3. Canal from La Fère to Landrecies, and from Mauberge to Brussels. This canal would be of the utmost importance, in affording the means of communicating by branches through La Froulle, Le Piéton, & L'Orneau, with the Scheld on one side and the Meuse on the other. It would also procure the means of communication with the Rhine through the canal of La Fosse Eugénienne.

4. The canal of Nièvre is intended to join the Higher Loire with the Seine.

5. The canal of Provins, intended to join the Vouzie with the Seine; which would be a great advantage to Paris, by facilitating the business of conveying provisions for the metropolis.

6. The canal from the Rhine to the mouths of the Rhone. This canal, the most important that can be executed for this country, is to connect the Mediterranean sea with the German ocean. The centre is to be at Valdieu: on one side the communication will be established with the Mediterranean, by the Doubs, the Saone, and the Rhone; and on the other with the German ocean, by the Ille and the Rhine.

7. Canal from the Rhine to the Seine. The name of this canal is alone sufficient to indicate its importance with respect to the commercial intercourse which it will establish between France and Germany: it is also intended to form a second line of fortification for the defence of the country.

8. Canal of St. Quintin, intended to have five branches: the first is to join the Somme to the Scheldt by St. Quintin and Cambray; the second will form a communication between the Oise and Somme; and another, at Oise near Moy, terminates at St. Quintin. This canal will be of the utmost consequence to the internal commerce of the Low-countries: as it will communicate with the sea at St. Valéry by means of the Somme; with the Seine by means of the Oise; and with the Meuse, through the canal which is intended to be formed in order to join the Oise to the Sambre. The third branch is to join the Oise to the Somme, which will greatly facilitate the transportation of coals from the pits of Auzin. The fourth branch is to join the

Sambre to the Scheld, between Charleroy and Brussels.

9. The canal called La Censée, which is considered as one of the branches of the canal of St. Quintin. This is to establish a communication between Calais, Dunkirk, Lisle, Douay, and Paris.

These are doubtless mighty schemes; yet should Buonaparte ever allow himself a few years of peace, I think the greater part of them will be put into execution.

Having thus given you some account of those canals which are in contemplation, it is right that I should not neglect such as are already finished.

To begin alphabetically, the first is, the canal called in French *Des Alpes*, which connects the Durance with the Rhone. It has two branches, both commencing at Malletmort. One of the great advantages of this canal, is the means which it affords to a vast extent of country, of obtaining water for their pasture lands; which, before its construction, were burnt up by the great heat so severely felt in these parts.

2. *Canal de Bourdignon*, in the department of Gard; a small canal, connecting D'Agnès Mortes to the Rhone.

3. Canal of Braire. This is twenty leagues in length; and has on it forty-two sluices, the first of the kind that were executed in France. By means of this canal the Loing is rendered navigable as far as the Seine, a little below Nemours.

4. Canal of Bruck, in the department of the Lower Rhine. This canal is four leagues in length: it commences at Molsheim, and terminates at Strasbourg.

5. Canal from Brussels to Antwerp: forming a communication between the Seine and the Scheld; by means of the Rupel, which empties itself into the latter river: it passes through Malines.

6. Central canal, formerly called *canal du Charolais*. This canal extends twenty leagues, and penetrates a mountain for the space of about fourteen hundred yards. Its great advantage is that of communicating with the Mediterranean by the Rhone, with the ocean by the Loire, with the Channel by the canal of Briare, and with the Seine in traversing Paris. This triple communication has given it also the title of "Canal of the three Seas."

7. Canal of the Gold-coast, likewise known by the name of Burgundy canal. It is fifty leagues in length; and connects the Saone to the Yonne, receiving the rivers Armanche

and Arras, at a league and a half from Joigny. It was projected during the reign of Henry IV.

8. Canal of Crayonne, in the department of the Mouths of the Gironde. This canal derives its supply of water from the Durance, traverses and fertilizes the Crau d'Arles, and empties itself into the Rhone. It is not navigable, but turns a great number of mills.

9. Canal from Douay to Cassel and Lens; completed in 1686, by order of Lewis XIV. The communication between Lens and Cassel had already taken place by the river Deule, and a continuation of the lower Deule. This canal joins the Lys at Warneton, which communicates with the sea by others; and by such means the Lys and the Deule are connected with the Scheldt, and that communicates with the Scheldt. A plan is now in execution to connect the Scheldt with the Somme by the means of a subterraneous passage.

10. Canal of Giverny. This (which is commenced) is intended to connect the Rhone to the Loire by the little river Cher.

11. Canal from Louvain to Malines. This serves to establish a communication between Louvain and Malines. It is four leagues in length, sixty feet in width, and eleven in depth. The boats which pass on it are sixty feet long, twelve feet large, and draw from two to three feet of water. The adjacent land has doubled in value since the construction of this canal.

12. Canal of Luçon. This extends from Luçon to the sea, and is about two leagues in length.

13. Canal of Laue, or *Du Gard*. This also joins the sea.

14. Canal from the Meuse to the Rhine; known by the name of Fosse Eugénienne, in consequence of its being commenced by order of the famous Prince Eugene of Savoy.

15. Southern canal, formerly called the canal of Languedoc. This connects the ocean to the Mediterranean, and is forty-five leagues in length. It was executed by Peter Paul Riquet; from the plans of the celebrated Andreossi, the fourth direct ancestor to the present general of that name. In order to effect this junction, it was necessary to cut through mountains, and elevate valleys. A basin was constructed at Norouse, four hundred yards in length and three hundred in width, this place being the highest spot between the two seas. In order to retain a

constant supply of water in this bason, a reservoir was formed at Saint F  rol, 2,400 yards long, 1,000 yards wide, and 60 deep: its shape is triangular, and it is inclosed by two mountains and a very strong bank. This bank supports an aqueduct which conveys the water to the bason of Norouse, whence the canal is always amply supplied. This canal will always be a monument of human industry, and proves what difficulties may be surmounted by genius and perseverance. There still remain however two great works to be accomplished; one in the neighbourhood of Carcassonne, ordered by the former States of Languedoc, and brought to a state of forwardness by them; the other, which has been a long time in contemplation, is a bridge, to serve at the same time as a canal and aqueduct, to cross the river Orb at Bezieres, by which means carriages might run by the side of vessels in full sail.

16. *Canal du Morbihan*; which connects the Rannes with the sea, and is about a league in length.

17. Canal of Orleans, or *Du Loiret*, connecting the Loire to the Seine. It begins at Port Moran, and joins the river Loing after a course of eighteen leagues. The Loing, having passed through Nemours, falls into the Seine a little below Moret. This canal has thirty sluices; and was finished in 1692, after being ten years in completing.

18. The canal of Montargis was constructed in 1720, in consequence of the river Loing not being navigable from Montargis to the Seine.

19. Canal from Ostend to Bruges. There are three canals which serve to open a communication between Bruges and the sea: one, named *Le Rey*, passes through Dainne. A second, which is near the first, was made in consequence of its being perceived that the former could not always be sufficiently supplied with water to render it navigable. This second canal has water enough for ships of 400 tons burthen; which can now pass from the sea to Bruges, by means of sluices that have been constructed at Licke and Plassendal, and are defended by forts. The third is the canal of Ostend, which brings vessels of from two to three hundred tons to Bruges. The basons which terminates it can contain a hundred vessels. Bruges communicates with Ghent by the Scheld, and from Ghent there are various canals to the different towns in the Low-countries. The rivers Scheld, Scarpe, and Lys, are connected by canals; and conduct to Fournay, Menin, Lisle, and

Douay: this renders the inland navigation very active in the north-west of France.

20. *Canal de la Robine, or de l'Azile*, joins the Southern canal; passes through Narbonne, where it is navigable; and throws itself into the Mediterranean at the port of Nouvelle.

21. *Canal de la Rudelle*, communicating with the Rhone and the sea.

We find from vol. ii. page 282, of the work which I have before quoted, that agriculture furnishes articles for the internal commerce of France, to the amount of 1,820,000,000 francs; consisting of wine and brandy worth 350 millions of francs, oil 60 millions, about 700 millions of corn of different sorts, 400 millions in cattle of various descriptions, 60 millions in forage, 140 millions in wood and charcoal, 35 millions in wool, 25 millions in silk, and 50 millions in hemp and flax.* But this is not the whole of its internal consumption; as France draws a great quantity of wool, flax, and leather, from other countries.

It will not be uninteresting, I hope, to insert here the calculations of M. Peuchet respecting the number of workmen employed in the various branches of industry in the country, and in the different towns. He states that there are 42,000 in the country (I think he considerably under-rates them), and 215,000 in the towns: that the former gain about 19,350,000 francs (806,250l.) a year, reckoning 300 working-days; and the latter 900 millions (37,500,000l.)

We find in the *Memoir on the Administration of the Commerce and Colonies of France*, that the profits arising from the different branches of French industry amounted in 1789 to the sum of 504,760,000 livres, thus:-

* Nearly as follows:

	£.
Wine and brandy	14,583,334
Oil	2,500,000
Corn	29,166,666
Cattle	16,666,666
Forage	2,500,000
Wood and charcoal	5,833,334
Wool	1,458,334
Silk	1,041,666
Hemp and flax	2,083,334

Total £75,833,334

	LIBRES.
On linen	161,250,000.
woollen goods	92,500,000
silk goods	41,600,000
fashions (<i>modes</i>)	5,000,000
furniture and carpets	800,000
mercery and ironmongery	75,000,000
tanned articles, and furs	6,000,000
paper	7,000,000
gold and silver work	2,500,000
smith's work	38,200,000
soap	5,000,000
sugar-refining	5,800,000
salt	2,700,000
tobacco and snuff	1,200,000
arts and trades	60,000,000
Total	504,750,000

M. Penchet observes, that it may be easily imagined this table cannot be at the present time, exactly correct as to several of the articles: for instance, the sugar-refining amounts to less than above stated, and the produce of the salt to more. But as it is the only tolerably correct list which I can now find, I have sent it for your perusal.

The produce of the mineral substances found in France is as follows:

Nearly as follows:	£.
Linen	6,718,750
Woollen goods	3,854,167
Silk goods	1,733,333
<i>Modes</i>	208,333
Furniture and carpets	33,333
Mercery and ironmongery	3,125,000
Tanned articles, and furs	250,000
Paper	300,000
Gold and silver work	104,167
Smith's work	1,591,667
Soap	208,333
Sugar-refining	241,667
Salt	112,500
Tobacco and snuff	50,000
Arts and trades	2,500,000
	£.21,031,250

A TABLE of the Mineral Substances of France, and their Produce.

Nature of the substances.	Produce.		Employed:	
	in hundred weights.	in money. francs. / £. sterl.	heads of families.	individuals, at 4 to a family.
Iron mines	2,400,000	45,000,000 / 1,875,000	60,000	240,000
Secondary manufactories of iron	-	10,000,000 / 416,667	10,000	416,000
Lead mines	24,000	810,000 / 35,000	800	3,200
Copper mines	2,000	300,000 / 12,500	300	1,200
Secondary manufactories of copper	-	6,000,000 / 250,000	2,100	9,000
Mines of mercury	67,200	268,800 / 11,200	30	1,200
Mines of zinc	60,000	234,000 / 9,750	300	1,200
Mines of antimony	1,500	30,000 / 1,250	40	160
Mines of manganese	1,200	18,000 / 750	30	120
Mines of salt	-	3,000,000 / 125,000	600	2,400
Salt from the marshes	5,000,000	15,000,000 / 541,667	6,200	24,800
Mineral acids	-	3,000,000 / 125,000	300	1,200
Coal-pits	82,000,000	61,500,000 / 2,502,500	61,500	246,000
Peat, rocks, stones, earth, and sand	-	9,912,000 / 288,000	864,000	3,456,000
Total		150,102,000 / 6,254,284	1,100,790	4,403,160

If to the foregoing statement you add $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions of francs,* at which the produce of the inland fisheries are valued, you will be enabled to form some idea of the amount of the several objects which form the different branches of the interior navigation and traffic of France.

The tolls levied on the different canals vary according to circumstances, and therefore cannot be exactly ascertained. They are under the control of the prefects of departments, who report to the minister of the interior concerning them: the minister then sends his orders about letting them, raising or diminishing the rates, &c.

The roads are kept up by means of turnpike gates, at which are paid the following tolls; and these are let every three years to the highest bidder approved by government. The roads are under the direction of the prefect and council general of each department in which they are situated.

Toll for every *distance* of five kilometres (a league and a quarter.)

	Centimes.†	Sols.
For each horse or mule, drawing a waggon or cart	10	or 2
For each ox or ass drawing a waggon or cart	5	or 1
For each horse or mule drawing a carriage on springs	15	or 2½
For each horse or mule carrying a person	10	or 2
For each horse or mule loaded (pack-horse)	5	or 1

During the five months from 15th Brumaire to 15th Germinal:

	Myriagrams.†
A carriage with four wheels must only weigh	450
A carriage with two wheels	250
A carriage with four wheels of 9 inches and 3 lines in width	550
A carriage with two wheels of 9 inches and 3 lines each	350

During seven months, from 15th Germinal to 15th Brumaire:

	Myriagrams.
A carriage with four wheels must weigh not above	550
— with two	370

* 416,666 l.

† A centime is the hundredth part of a franc (or 10d. sterling).

‡ A myriagram is equal to 2½ lb. 1 oz. 2 dr. avoirdupois.

A carriage with four, of 9 inches 3 lines each - - 475

I have now given you as accurate an account as I can procure, concerning the different heads of the internal commerce of France, and the means of conveyance used in it. I omit inserting the respective roads which serve for this purpose, as they are to be found in every itinerary of this country; but a description of the canals is not so common.

Nancy, January 26, 1809.

I have just returned from making a most delightful tour in the Vosges, with a friend and his family in whose house I was staying for some time. He resides about seven leagues from this place; and is particularly anxious, by his attention to the English, to prove his gratitude for the asylum which our country afforded him during his exile from his own. Having recovered a great part of his property, he is able to display the hospitality which is so congenial to his disposition. Air and exercise were of infinite service to me, and tended to make me lose the bitter thought of my being likely to remain long absent from my native land.

As the French here go into the country to retrench, we do not meet the same luxury and comfort as in England; and this observation is particularly just at the breakfast-table. Instead of the comfortable meal which you find on your side of the water, where every thing provokes the appetite by its delightful cleanliness, we perceive here the tea-things displayed upon a deal table, without a cloth; and most of the people eating their breakfast in their bed-gowns, while they run about the room. Instead of that pleasing reunion of all the family which takes place at an English breakfast, we here seldom see the lady of the house preside; and very few of the party assemble at the time appointed (about nine) to eat their first meal, as many of them breakfast in their bed-rooms. Afterward, those who shoot amuse themselves with their guns till one; when the dinner-bell is rung, and all meet together. This repast is much more comfortable than the former, and there is always a great variety of dishes on the table; but the eye of the Englishman searches in vain for the sideboard, which is generally laid out with so much neatness in his own country: neither does he find the plate so bright, the glass so well polished by rubbing, the luxury of a horsehair chair, or a carpet. It may be said, where the appetite is good these articles are

superfluous; but custom has made them so familiar to us, that we are long before we can be reconciled to their loss.

In the evening those who like walking better than cards, make little excursions in the neighbourhood; and at nine supper is served up: after which a conversation generally ensues, replete with all the life and gaiety that animate the natives of this country; and often interspersed with observations which are both entertaining and instructive, particularly to the stranger who wishes for information respecting their customs and manners. Here it must be observed, that the French are not only more communicative than ourselves of what concerns such points, but also in regard to the experiments which they make in the different branches of manufacture and arts.

In consequence of the tacit permission of the general under whose orders we are, I was induced to take a little tour in the mountains of the Vosges; and returned very much delighted with my journey. Our party consisted of the family with whom I was residing in the country, and some of their Parisian friends; five in the whole. The first town which we visited was Epinal, most beautifully situated on the banks of the Moselle, and in the midst of mountains covered with immense fir-trees and oaks. It is one of the cleanest towns which I have seen in France, and in almost every street there are two streams of the clearest water that can be imagined. The Moselle is famous for the transparency of its water, and in summer offers some truly picturesque scenery; but in winter it is subject to great inundations, and much mischief is often the consequence.

Our next stage was to Plombières; a place celebrated for its hot springs, the virtue of which corresponds with our Bath waters. One of them boils an egg in a few minutes; but when the water is put over the fire it is observed that it does not boil sooner than common water. Another singular property which it possesses is, that on touching a glass filled with it, one can hardly endure the heat; but we drink the water without inconvenience. This town is the general resort of the fashionable females of Paris who are either ill, or fancy themselves so, in order to induce their credulous husbands to indulge them in a journey hither: which latter case is very common when *Madame* wishes to make an assignation with the object

of her illicit amours, as it is never considered requisite that the husband should accompany her.

Nothing can surpass the romantic scenery in the neighbourhood of Plombières; particularly the valley of Ajol, about two leagues distant, which is a favorite excursion with visitors. Every thing here is remarkably cheap: board and lodging can be procured for four, five, or six francs* a day, according to the manner in which we wish to be accommodated. The town is famous for a spirit distilled from a small black cherry that grows wild hereabout, and called by the natives *kirsch-wasser*, or *kirken-wasser* (cherry-water). People become very fond of it by habit, though it appears to me necessary to have one's throat paved in order to drink any quantity.

After examining all the beauties of Plombières, we proceeded across a part of the Vosges to Remiremont. Every step in these enchanting mountains recalled to mind the happy days which I spent in South Wales. The comparison between my present situation and those short-lived moments of felicity, was not calculated to make me an agreeable companion: I therefore took my horse and left the carriages, that I might wander in the mountains and indulge in a melancholy which, when the heart is oppressed, proves its greatest consolation.

Remiremont is a neat little town, containing between two and three thousand inhabitants. The soil of this district produces rye, oats, millet, buck-wheat, a great quantity of wood, and pasture: which last is to be found sometimes in the midst of the most barren lands, in consequence of the inhabitants having either brought the soil to the spot with immense labour, or conducted thither the rivulets in which the mountains abound, in order to fertilize their little property. By this means they are enabled to cut their grass three and sometimes four times in a season; and mow so close, that the whole country appears, after having undergone this *shaving*, like a garden.

Next day we proceeded to the house of a friend, where we staid some days, after passing through a wild mountainous country which is called Switzerland in miniature. We dined in our way on the borders of the lake of Gerard-mer, the surrounding scenery of which is very beautiful. After staying some time with this gentleman, who entertained us with all that hospitality which renders a country-house so delightful, we returned through Bruyères and Remberviller

to the place whence we started, having made a most delightful tour of about ten days.

Before I quit this subject, I must inform you that these mountains contain immense riches; and were they explored properly, would prove a vast source of wealth to the country. They include mines of iron, lead, silver, and copper; some of which are worked; but not on a grand scale, for want of capital. There are quarries of granite and marble of various descriptions; and a great quantity of hot springs, the principal of which are at Plombières and Bains. The manufactures consist of iron, tin, glass, pottery, paper, deal boxes, wooden shoes, pails, &c. lace, cotton, linen, wool-len cloths, and tanning.

The Vosges contain a number of active but very poor inhabitants. Government would find a great advantage in giving them more encouragement, from the increase of the variety of articles which might be produced from the contents of these truly interesting mountains.

In the Vosges I heard of a crime produced by the revolution, which is truly worthy of its origin: it was common during the troubles; and though in a manner suppressed, still exists. A set of men called *chauffeurs** enter solitary farm-houses, and place the inhabitants with the soles of their feet to the fire till they declare where they have deposited their money. I saw one poor man brought into court with his feet in a most dreadful state, caused by the cruelty of these savages. The persons concerned in this horrid action, six in number, were condemned to the guillotine.

During my stay in the country, I frequently joined in parties to hunt the wolf; an animal extremely formidable there in the winter months. The manner of this chase is as follows: The game-keepers in their walks distinguish the print of the creature's paw in the snow: they then hasten home, and give notice to all the sportsmen in the village, as well as others who are interested in the destruction of this enemy. The party sally out; most of them armed with guns, and some with pistols. The latter go into the thickest part of the wood, making a great noise; and when they perceive the animal, they fire. The wolf then generally runs straight from them towards the others; who have previously encircled the wood, and now fire at him as he is on the point of crossing the riding. These

* Hunters.

immense forests are intersected with roads which facilitate the destruction of this animal, and serve for the conveyance of the wood to market. The gentleman with whom I was staying, gains annually about fifteen hundred pounds sterling from his forests.

On the side of each riding we generally perceive traps for small birds; and it is not unusual for the person who occupies himself in this cruel sport, to catch eight or ten dozen in the course of the day. They principally consists of robins; of which the French epicures are remarkably fond, when roasted on a little wooden spit: I cannot say, however, that I admire them. It has been remarked in countries where such numbers of these birds have been destroyed, that blights and caterpillars become much more numerous than before.

Nancy, April 4, 1805.

After the confusion from which France has suffered so many years; after the torrent of immorality which so long overwhelmed this revolutionized nation; the government, as the waters subsided, wisely thought it expedient to raise embankments to secure the country from a future inundation. With this intention it has established schools in the different departments, as well as in the capital, in which six thousand boys are to have their education at the expence of the public. Many will thus receive instruction from which they can derive but little benefit, in consequence of being educated in a manner ill adapted to their circumstances. The vacancies being offered to candidates of every description, many offer themselves who would have been better employed in learning to gain a livelihood by some mechanical profession; and if they succeed, will choose rather a state of starvation while they write pamphlets in a garret, than support their families by manual labour. These evils will probably be rectified as France becomes more re-civilized. The principal object of the government is, to disseminate widely a thirst after knowledge, which may act as a counterpoise to the pernicious doctrine of "rendering the people ignorant in order to rule them with greater facility." Another purpose in institutions of every description founded by Buonaparte for the education of children is, to make them a nation of soldiers. Exclusively of the military academies, the lycæums which have been established oblige all the boys to wear an uniform; the signals used among them are made by beat of

drum, and their organization is formed on the model of the military regulation of the country. Thus Buonaparte never loses sight of his main project, that of subduing the neighbouring nations, which he means to effect by numbers habituated to military discipline and exercise from their earliest youth. However he may justly be accused of caprice and tergiversation in other respects, he is constant and uniform in this; and if death does not shortly terminate his career, there is every reason to fear the result of his scheme.

The system of public instruction has been divided into primary schools, secondary schools, lycæums, special schools, and schools for the public service; which are all subject to be inspected by persons sent by the government to examine whether the pupils are properly instructed, and to report the same to the chief. The primary and secondary schools are for the children of those who are able to pay for their education: the respective districts only furnish a house for the teachers of them, or a sum equivalent to the rent of a house large enough to accommodate the scholars. These schools merely instruct children in the elements of their different studies; and the payment to be made by each pupil, is regulated by the council of the municipality in which the school is situated.

The lycæums are intended for instruction in higher branches, and it is here and in the special schools that six thousand four hundred children receive their education *gratis*. But the lycæums are permitted also to have scholars who pay for their education; and if I may judge of the rest by that in this department, such education cannot be of the best kind, as government is extremely backward in supplying its allowances for the support of this establishment. It has even been known that the government-pupils were at times supported from the sum received by the masters from those who pay. There is a lycæum in every district having a tribunal of appeal. Of the six thousand four hundred pupils, two thousand four hundred are to be chosen by the government from among the sons of the military; or of those who are employed in civil offices, and have conducted themselves properly. These must be nine years old at least, and able to write and read. The other four thousand are to be selected from eight thousand presented to government by the different secondary schools, in which there is to be an annual competition: each department is to offer a number of candidates in proportion

to its population. The public scholars can only remain six years in the lycées at the expence of government : at the end of which period they are to undergo an examination ; and one-fifth are to be selected and sent to the special school best suited to their capacity, there to be educated at the public expence for two, three, or four years more.

The college of France is an institution as venerable as it is important, and the only one that was not abolished during the revolution. It can hardly be ranked under the head of special schools, though pupils there receive gratuitous instruction in the superior branches of science. There is a professor for each of the following sciences : astronomy, mathematics, physics, medicine, anatomy, chemistry, natural history, the law of nature and of nations, history, moral philosophy, Hebrew, Arabian, Persian and Turkish, Greek, Latin, and French literature.

The special schools may be enumerated as follows : school for the study of natural history ; to which are added chemistry, botany, mineralogy, horticulture, &c. : school of medicine in all its branches ; veterinary school ; school of living Oriental languages ; school of painting, sculpture, and architecture ; where there are nine professors, besides eight assistants ; conservatory of music ; and conservatory of arts and trades. This last is a collection of the different utensils necessary for the exercise of every trade, and various models. It is the intention of government to establish a certain number of professors, for lecturing on the different branches of mechanics, and explaining the nature of the respective instruments employed in every profession.

Before I mention the schools destined for the public service, it is necessary that I should not pass over those for the instruction of the deaf and dumb, and the blind, of which interesting institutions I have already given you some account.

The schools destined for the public service are, the polytechnic school ; the military college at Fontainebleau ; the college of Compiegne, for the navy and for various arts ; the school of artillery and engineers at Metz ; the school for bridges and highways ; the schools for naval engineers and navigation at Paris, and in the thirteen principal sea-ports ; the schools for the study of the theoretical and practical branches of mineralogy : the theoretical is established at Paris ; and the practical in the department of Mont Blanc, in the neighbourhood of the lead-mines of Pesay ;

with another in the department of *La Sarre*, nigh the forges of Geislautern, near Saarbrück.

The various schools above-mentioned indicate by their names the purport of their institution. The polytechnic school may be considered as a nursery for the other practical schools. In this the number of pupils is limited to three hundred: they are instructed in the higher branches of mathematics, physics, chemistry, &c. At the end of three years, they are examined by inspectors appointed for that purpose; when, if approved, they are appointed to either some commission in the army, or a place in the public offices; but if not approved, they are dismissed. This institution is considered as the most useful of its kind in France, and has produced a number of very able men.

Such then are the establishments which government has founded for the instruction of youth in this country: they are at present in a state of infancy, and therefore it is not fair to judge of them harshly. In all there are numerous abuses, which are almost daily rectified; and perhaps they will thus in time be brought to some degree of perfection. As the means of reclaiming the nation to a sense of its duty, the government has wisely thought it right also to re-open the churches, which has had some good effect. I shall therefore devote my next to a description of the state of religious worship as it exists at present in this country.

Nancy, July 28, 1803.

The re-opening of the churches in France; and the means thus procured to a suffering people, of publicly offering up their supplications to their Maker; certainly produced a favourable sensation in the minds of numbers toward the restorer of that religious consolation. But first impressions are not very durable in this country: in the sequel, as you may suppose, there occurred a forgetfulness of this favour as the novelty of it ceased; and now the benefits of religion are not considered as an availing counterpoise to the heavy taxes which the same man has imposed on his murmuring people.

You are doubtless already acquainted with the articles of the concordat; the ratifications of which were exchanged between the French government and the pope, on the 10th of September, 1801. This document, including the regulations respecting the protestant worship, was published in the form of a law, on the 8th of April, 1802. It will shew you that there is perfect liberty of conscience in France,

and persons of every sect are eligible to the offices of state. It is merely provided, that if any successor of the First Consul should profess the protestant religion, a new arrangement shall then take place between the French government and the see of Rome.

Before I send you an account of the present ecclesiastical division of France, it may not be inseasonable perhaps to speak of that which existed under the old government. In 1789 there were in this country eighteen archbishops, and a hundred and twelve bishops; forty thousand parishes (livings), seven hundred of which were dependant on foreign dioceses; eight hundred monasteries for men, thirteen of which were in a similar state of dependance, and two hundred and eighty-one for women, eight of them dependant in the same way; and six hundred and seventy chapters (a sort of monasteries, the members of which were allowed a greater freedom,) twenty-four of which were for females of noble birth, and ten dependant on foreign dioceses. The tax which the court of Rome levied on the archbishops and bishops in France, amounted to 1,694,810 livres;* and their whole revenue was 4,939,000 livres.†

The revenue of the different monasteries and chapters was enormous, and called loudly for the chastising hand of reformation: the misery which that reformation inflicted on the numerous members of them, the mere drones of society, was severe; and was felt the more deeply, as its sufferers had so long previously feasted on the fat of the land. France, however, has been a great gainer by the suppression of these establishments; but this is only as a drop in the ocean, when compared with the horrors which resulted from the same spirit of reform. During the prevailing rage for pillaging the property of all public bodies, the lands with which the respective hospitals were endowed were included in the general wreck, and sold in common with the rest of the national effects: so that the sick and the maimed were left without an asylum; and a vast expence was entailed on the succeeding government, for re-establishing these charitable institutions. But futurity occupied only a small space in the view of the wretches who then directed public affairs.

To return to my subject. France is now divided into ten archbishoprics and fifty bishoprics; the holders of the former being each allowed by government 15,000 francs

* 79,517*l*.

† 205,792*l*.

annually (which sum may be augmented by the council-general at the expence of the department), and the bishops 10,000.* The rectors of parishes are allowed some 1500 francs, and others 1000.† The latter sums are so very small a revenue, and are besides so ill paid by the government, that its holders are in a state of want and distress: thus not being able to support a respectable appearance in their parishes, they meet with but little consideration among the lower classes, and are far from receiving the deference formerly afforded by the parishioner to his pastor. Nothing can be more deplorable than the generality of this class of individuals in France. After undergoing the miseries of a tedious and painful exile, they were induced to return home, partly through the benefits held out to them in prospect by the French government, partly through a natural desire to return to their native country, and many through zeal for the religion which they professed. On their arrival, how painful must have been their sensations to observe the growth of immorality since they had left their different parishes; where, instead of an asylum for their old age from the storms of life which had so cruelly buffeted them, they found only the prospect of disrespect and poverty! The consequence of this is, that a number of the present clergy being considerably advanced in years, there will be found but few regular priests to replace them when they die. In each diocese indeed there is established a school for the instruction of young men intended for the church; but so little encouragement is offered to them, that few attend these preparatory institutions.

Among the clergy that have returned to France after passing their emigration in England, I have found many in the inferior class who speak with gratitude of the generosity of our nation toward them: I have also met some in the *higher stages* of ecclesiastical preferment, who have in conversation used equally grateful terms; but in their charges to their flocks have vilely deprecated that government which had for years preserved them from starving. I have heard the same charges delivered by them from the pulpit, where one would have imagined that gratitude for benefits received would have formed a part of their doctrine. And here I cannot refrain from stating how completely we are the jest of the whole continent, for being betrayed by

* 625l. and about 417l.

† 62l. 10s. and not quite 42l.

men on whom we are still lavishing immense sums of money, and for harbouring in the bosom of our own country those who are sending intelligence of importance to our enemies.

In order to prevent confusion, and religious battles, which latter have sometimes taken place between contending processions, government has wisely decreed that no such exhibitions shall extend beyond the walls of the church. There can be no protestant church opened unless there are six thousand of that persuasion in the place, but in that case the ministers of this religion enjoy the same privileges as the catholic clergy.

The only sisterhood re-established since the revolution, is that which devotes itself entirely to the care of the sick and wounded in the different hospitals, and known by the name of the Sisters of Charity; and if all the monastic institutions had been founded on the benevolent principles of these humane and respectable nuns, the abolition of them would have been more regretted than it is at present. These worthy creatures devote themselves entirely to relieve the agonizing moments of those who suffer from disease; and attend the sick, at times when the stoutest heart shrinks, with the most heroic fortitude and perseverance. I have often witnessed their kind efforts to afford relief to my countrymen, my fellow-prisoners, who were worn out by fatigue, and the extreme inattention of the French government. Many were past recovery before they became the patients of these good sisters; but many others still live to bless the day when they were so fortunate as to fall into such good hands. Since the benevolent sisters have undertaken to attend the different hospitals, cleanliness and economy have been introduced there instead of the former horrid filth and embezzlement; the sick man receives the tender assiduity of a female, instead of the coarser manners of his previous attendants; and the wounded soldier feels infinitely less during his recovery from the hurts that he received in his struggle for glory. The consolation which these worthy females find in their own bosoms, is the only recompence they seek for devoting their whole lives to the cause of suffering humanity; and to judge from the serenity and cheerfulness of their general deportment, they derive that consolation in a degree equivalent to their merit.*

* The personal attention which I received from this sisterhood at Nanty, in my recommendation of our poor countrymen to their care, claims this public acknowledgment of their worth and my own gratitude.

As the Roman-catholic religion regains its ground in this country, its attendant superstition exercises her usual sway over the minds of the greater part of the lower orders of the people. The taste for relics, &c. prevails nearly to, as great an extent as before the revolution. I think the nation may be divided into four distinct sects: those who are *really* religious; those who are only *rigidly* so, because they think it a distinction from the favourers of the new order of things; those in a state of apathy respecting religion; and finally (of which there are immense numbers in France), absolute atheists.

The people of this province were always noted for their strict attendance on divine worship, and the country-people for their gross superstition. As a proof of this, I have only to relate to you an anecdote which I had from unquestionable authority:—A village in the neighbourhood of this town, had, in common with other places, a particular saint for its patron. On the very day dedicated to this saint, the vines of the whole district were so injured by the frost, that not a hogshead of liquor was obtained from all the vineyards. On this the saint was publicly threatened, that if such an accident happened again on his anniversary he should be discarded, and his patronage given to a new saint. Unfortunately for the poor fellow, the same accident took place the following year; the consequence of which was, that his *sainthood* was dislodged from the nich which he had occupied peaceably in the church from time immemorial; then placed on a pole and paraded through the vines, the people vociferating, “Hold the rascal high enough, that he may see the extent of the mischief he has done;” and finally thrown into the river, loaded with heavy stones to prevent him from ever appearing again. A new patron was then selected from the calendar, to succeed to the honours thus left unappropriated.

This, my dear friend, is an imperfect sketch of the present state of religious worship in France; but before I conclude, I must observe that there is still, among the female part of the nation, the same extraordinary mixture of devotion and gallantry for which they were always notorious. Nothing can be more common than to hear women who are known to be untrue to their husbands’ bed, descant upon the horrors of not going regularly to mass; and a friend of mine assured me, that a lady of his acquaintance excused herself from keeping an assignation with him, in

consequence of her not having previously reflected that it would fall on Ash Wednesday.

Nancy, Sept. 26, 1805.

Yesterday the *august sovereigns* of France, the emperor Napoleon and the empress Josephine, passed through this place in their way to Strasburg; where *her majesty* is to remain during the absence of her imperial husband, who is on the point of taking the command of the grand army. A great part of it has been passing through Nancy for this last month; and I think a finer body of active men, so complete for service, never was collected together. I could not help remarking what a great and advantageous difference has taken place in the appearance of the French soldiery, within these last three years. This may be accounted for, on considering the immense numbers of fine young men procured by means of the conscription, and the incessant pains taken by Buonaparte to bring them to a state of perfect discipline. His guards are, I think, the finest corps I ever saw; but the heavy horse belonging to them are badly mounted. The *chasseurs* and horse-artillery are the most completely accoutred for service that can be imagined, and their cleanliness and discipline may be held up as models to the troops of any nation. The generality of the army which marched this way did not consist of very robust men, though one corps of grenadiers was remarkably fine: the others were rather undersized; but well made, active, and capable of sustaining great fatigue. A circumstance which ought to be noticed as a striking contrast, and a pattern, to our own troops when they take the field, was the very small quantity of baggage that attended the army; and which consequently must impede its progress much less than the superfluous lumber that too often incumbers the march, and counteracts the valour, of British troops.

The passage of the army has been extremely burthensome to the inhabitants of such towns as happened to lie in their way to the Rhine. Most of the housekeepers of this place had from five to ten soldiers quartered on them, or were obliged to furnish that number with money to procure lodgings elsewhere: they usually preferred the latter mode and the sum they had to pay at the end of the fortnight was very considerable. The troops in general conducted themselves in an orderly manner, and there were very few instances of excesses committed by

them from inebriety. All those quartered in the house where I reside, spoke very disrespectfully of Buonaparte: they have an opinion that general Moreau is with the Austrian army, and vast numbers profess to intend joining him as soon as they cross the Rhine. They murmur very much at their great fatigues; but on my mentioning this circumstance to an old French officer, he replied: "The French soldier always murmurs; but he does not fight the worse for it, if his commander knows how to flatter his vanity at the moment of his going into battle." From what I learn, Buonaparte excels in that art, and has employed it with very great success; besides which, he possesses the essential talent of seizing critical moments as they occur for animating his troops and thus leading them to victory. In his way through this place yesterday, he was remarkably attentive to the inhabitants and seemed to be courting popularity by every act of condescension that he could devise. The cries of "Long live the emperor!" were very faint; yet he still bore marks of satisfaction in his countenance, and bowed obsequiously to the surrounding crowd. The *empress* appeared dejected at the thought of the approaching contest between France and Austria: she endeavoured however to force a smile, as a return to those who were desirous of shewing her respect and attention. She is infinitely more beloved than her husband; in consequence of her constant endeavour to soften the ferocity of his disposition, and the natural impetuosity of his character. She has already conferred many obligations on families ruined by the revolution, and saved many a victim from the hand of the executioner. With respect to her morality while she was Madame Beauharnois, nothing can be said; but every one does her the justice to own, that as the wife of the First Consul, and as *empress*, her conduct has been uniformly humane, and remarkable for its tendency to unite the contending factions. Every tale of woe is certain of finding with her a listening ear, and she is never easy till the poor sufferer is somewhat relieved from his affliction. I have thought this justification of her character the more necessary, as I understand she has been grossly misrepresented on the other side of the water.

The emperor passed through this place yesterday in his way back to Paris after the shortest and most brilliant campaign that will be recorded in modern history. Triumphant arches were erected in every town on his road. He arrived

here about three o'clock in the morning, and changed horses by torch-light; during which time I put into his hands a letter which the illustrious Dr. Jenner had the goodness to write for me, soliciting my return in consequence of his having been of so much benefit to France by means of the vaccine inoculation. Buonaparte received the letter with all the haughtiness imaginable; and gave it to a person in the same carriage, without reading it.

His conduct was very different the last time he passed this way. This may be easily accounted for: during his journey to the grand army, there existed a formidable coalition against him; but on his return that coalition had been defeated. On his way to the Rhine he courted popularity, under the apprehension of not succeeding by the sword: but on his return to Paris, he seemed to set the people at defiance; and assumed an air of arrogance, and a contempt of the public voice, so visibly, that we could not help remarking the contrast. Vast numbers of people were collected from all quarters, notwithstanding his wish to pass through the town privately. His equipage consisted of three carriages, constantly changing their station as they proceeded; his own being sometimes the first, and at other times in the middle or last: this denoted a precaution which seems to indicate that *his majesty* is not quite secure of the loyalty of his *liege subjects*.

But with all his assumed arrogance of manner, there was a mark of anxiety and mistrust displayed in his countenance, which was discernible to those who watched the motion of his eye. He was detained here about a quarter of an hour, during which time I was very near him; and on account of the recent events, I was the more anxious to study the physiognomy of the person who had acted the first part in the dreadful tragedy. I thus became perfectly acquainted with it; and if I were now to meet it in the remotest parts of the world, the object would be still familiar to me. I had formed a very erroneous opinion of the general impression of Buonaparte's countenance; as I imagined, from seeing it at a distance, that it displayed a degree of ferocity and of penetration which I found that it did not on a more minute inspection. By day-light the natural sallowness of his complexion gives a cast to his general physiognomy, which is by no means pleasing: but when this is softened down by candle-light, his eye is far from possessing that vivacity which it is stated to have; and appeared to me to denote great reflection rather than power.

tration. I should not judge the possessor of that physiognomy to be addicted to petulance: on the contrary, it denoted mildness, though accompanied by haughtiness. On the whole, it is a pleasing countenance when not distorted by passion; expressive of great sense and profound meditation. I have thus expatiated on a subject which at any other than the momentous time in which we live, would appear frivolous; but which I trust you will not deem so, after what has just taken place.

From the numerous unsuccessful attempts that I have made to procure my liberty, consistent with the *parole* which I gave on being allowed to come to this place, I have little reliance on the measure that I have just undertaken, in order to obtain permission to return to England. The moment, however, was so favourable, that I should have thought myself highly culpable if I had neglected it. I had already sent to Buonaparte copies of Dr. Jenner's letter through several channels; and among others through the means of Madame Buonaparte, who forwarded it to her husband during his stay in Germany: but very likely *his majesty* was too much occupied in his ambitious schemes of aggrandizement, to listen to the petition of so obscure an individual as myself. I shall therefore not give way to the hope of success, as I have paid too dearly already for being sanguine in my expectations on that head.

A number of Austrian officers have been sent to this place on their parole, from whom I have learnt some curious details respecting their late disasters. They are extremely dejected in consequence of their shameful conduct: they all say that it appears like magic, and that their fine army has been destroyed by means of which they are completely ignorant; but which in reality may be accounted for by the cowardice and treachery of many of their commanders, and the new mode of tactics introduced by their opponent. With the exception of some of the field-officers, who are fellow-prisoners with us, the generality seemed very deficient in education; and this (poor fellows!) was the more conspicuous, in consequence of their allowance from the French government being so small that they could not afford to maintain the appearance of gentlemen. The Russian officers are prisoners at Luneville, which is about four leagues distant: I have seen some of them; they seem a more intelligent race of men, but in education are not superior to the Austrians.

There was a report that a number of English prisoners

were to be transferred from Verdun to this place; but several (I am sorry to say it) having broken their parole, the order was recalled. Here I cannot refrain from censuring those gentlemen for the measure which they have thought proper to adopt in order to regain their native country. Whatever their opinions might be respecting the arbitrary conduct of the French government in making us prisoners, they had given their parole, and consequently could not violate it without entailing misery on their fellow-countrymen whom they left behind. This reflection will doubtless embitter the liberty which they have procured at the expense of those whose situation was sufficiently lamentable before.

Nancy, May 24, 1806.

I am very much grieved to inform you, that I have hitherto heard nothing respecting the letter which I gave to Buonaparte as he passed through this place. I fear it will meet the same fate as the other numerous petitions which I have addressed to *his majesty*, and I must resign myself to my situation as well as I can.

We are now extremely dull, in consequence of the gaieties of the carnival being ended: for a month or six weeks, while that lasted, dancing, feasting, and every sort of amusement, were carried to excess; but when the season of Lent arrived, all merriment ceased; and the contrast is so great, that the town has the appearance of labouring under some grievous public calamity. During the carnival, masked balls are very common, where every species of intrigue is carried on; but the company assembled there is very bad indeed. We see a vast number of women at them in male attire; that being a very favourite dress among the fair sex of this nation, not only on those occasions, but on many others. This custom arose from many of them being under the necessity of using that disguise in the course of the revolution, sometimes by way of convenience in the numerous peregrinations to which the political troubles rendered them liable. Another reason, which is perhaps found also among *ladies of other countries*, is the natural propensity which the sex have to use the authoritative privileges attached to wearing *the small-clothes*. But whatever may be the motive for this practice, the effect which it produces is seldom pleasing; for, independant of its being extremely unbecoming, it generally gives such an Amazonian boldness in those who adopt it, that they lose all

the native softness of their own sex, without acquiring that tempered masculine air which is the peculiar beauty of ours. Another circumstance completed the disgust which this dress created in my mind; I mean the propensity which the French ladies have to ride on horseback, as we do, with one leg on each side of the saddle: I am happy however to say that the fashion is now expiring, and ladies begin to ride with a side-saddle; and every thing being, as I stated before, regulated here by fashion, I trust they will all soon use this method.

I said that "every thing is regulated here by fashion;" and to shew you that the French are slaves to this, I need only mention that *now* the old order of things is quite the fashion, and every one affects the airs of the former court. During the revolution, every thing Roman was the fashion; it was the rage also to describe the British government as the most tyrannical and oppressive possible: now it is fashionable to talk of it as a complete oligarchy; and the house of commons as a factious and turbulent set of individuals, indulging in all the licentiousness of debate which caprice may suggest, or personal interest dictate: where individual animosity prevails over true patriotism; and where each is more concerned in seeking after pensions and sinecure places, than about the welfare of the nation.

There is a custom prevalent in this country, with which we are not acquainted in England: I mean that of celebrating the saint's-day of each individual, instead of the birth-day. This is done by offering to the person a nosegay, accompanied generally by a few lines containing a compliment or some expression of kindness. While I was in the country, I happened to assist at this offering made to the lady of the house, and it was agreed that we should each present her with a nosegay and some verses. When it came to my turn, want of habit made me feel rather awkward; but after some trouble, the following lines were produced:

*Couplets pour la Fête de Madame du **** pendant la captivité de l'auteur.*

Permettez, parmi tant d'heureux,
Qu'un captif offre son hommage:
Les vœux, croyez, du malheureux
Sont quelquefois de bon présage.
On rend ici son sort si doux,
Qu'il oublie toutes ses peines:
Doit-on s'étonner, près de vous
Qu'il chérisse toujours ses chaînes?

The lines on these occasions are sung to any old air you fancy. The French have a most happy art of turning every thing into what they call *vaudevilles*; a sort of song which they invented themselves, and which other nations in vain attempt to imitate. Let the matter be gay or serious, political or trivial, they make a song of it with all the *esprit* which is so very familiar to this nation. The subject indeed is often so trifling, that without that *esprit* which they introduce, it would appear childish; and it has been remarked that many a piece of this description would have been condemned, had not the *last line* of the concluding verse contained a happy allusion to some event which was the favourite topic of conversation with the hearers.

During the great length of time that I have remained here, I have never mentioned any thing respecting the comparative expence of living in this country and in our own. The fact is, that an Englishman will find, for some time after his arrival in France, that his expences are full as great as they were previously to his crossing the Channel; particularly in travelling, for he is infamously imposed upon at every inn on his road. The number of horses which he is *obliged* to take according to regulation, make the cost of journeys here almost as much as in England: indeed three persons travelling together economically in a post-chaise (which is provided for them at every inn on the English roads, but can never be got in France,) will perform a journey of any length, at least one-third more cheaply than they could go the same distance in France, taking into the account impositions on the road; they will be better served with horses, better accommodated at night, and (what is very important in their consideration) will not have to deplore, as here, the want of that cleanliness peculiar to the British inns, but the reverse of which forms a striking contrast in this country. The great difference of expence of living here is this; that almost all the native inhabitants being reduced in their circumstances, an Englishman may live in a comparative state of luxury, and still with economy. If he can provide himself with a steady honest French person to go to market for him, he will find that his expences will be at least one-third less than they were before he left home, in point of the necessary articles of provision; and his servants also will require less wages, give themselves fewer airs, and live on more homely food, than they do in England: and to other points we may add the cheapness of wine in France, and consider how very

expensive an article it has now become at an English gentleman's table.

As I am speaking of the drink of this country, I shall mention that it is astonishing what a quantity of punch is consumed here annually; and notwithstanding the assertion which is in every Frenchman's mouth, that "the English eat nothing but roast beef, and drink only punch," I do not exaggerate when I say that there is ten times as much drunk in France. The people here have a notion that punch is always introduced after dinner at every table in our country.

You will be surprised perhaps when I inform you, that in spite of the arbitrary system of the French government, severe strictures on its proceedings are very common in the different *provinces*. People certainly first endeavour to find that they are not likely to be betrayed by their company; but I have often heard, even in public, observations made on Buonaparte, which would not have passed unpunished in England if uttered respecting the king. But that is far from being the case in *Paris*; where, for the most trifling remark, persons are exiled, or *disappear*. It is unnecessary for me to say any thing about the *liberty of the press*, as that is now quite obsolete. I remember having some conversation with a very sensible Frenchman on this subject, while we were observing the *crowd* at Buonaparte's monthly review of his troops, from a window that looked on the *Place Carouzel*. He said, all the liberty of this nature which they enjoyed, was that in which the people were then indulging themselves at the expence of their neighbours' *ribs*: "that," said he, "is the only *press* that remains free to us."

Nancy, July 18, 1806.

It is impossible to describe to you the sensation of wild joy under which I write at the present moment: on my informing you that I have just received intelligence that my passport for England is now going through the different offices, and that I am to receive it in two days, you may conceive more than I am able to express. This has been obtained by the means of Dr. Corvisart, first physician to Buonaparte, who presented a copy of Dr. Jenner's letter to *his imperial majesty*. I am not personally known to Dr. Corvisart; but he undertook this kind office, in consequence of the high esteem in which he holds the benefactor of mankind, as he properly styles the author of the *VACCINE*

INOCULATION. On his presenting the letter to Buonaparte, requesting my liberty and that of Dr. Wickham, the emperor's answer was: "*Je ne saurais refuser la demande d'un grand homme tel que le docteur Jenner.*"—I can refuse nothing to a great man as Dr. Jenner."

The moment I receive my passport, I shall bid a long farewell to this place; you may however easily conceive, that in town where, during a stay of three years, I have met such repeated acts of kindness, the excess of joy produced by the arrival of my passport will be moderated by the reflection that I leave behind me, perhaps for ever, persons to whom I feel attached by the strongest of ties, that of gratitude. This is somewhat fortunate; for I really believe that without it, my mind would hardly have been strong enough to bear my present transports.

Morlaix, July 28, 1806.

I reached this place in my way to England, the day before yesterday; and shall very likely be detained here some days longer, by the necessary routine of office previously to the embarkation of a prisoner of war for his own country.

I left Nancy on the 15th; and reached Paris on the 17th, where I remained the next day; during which I endeavoured to see the Venus of Milo's, which arrived at Paris soon after my departure for Nancy; but unfortunately it was a Friday, and on that account I could not procure admittance into the museum; nor could I prevail upon myself to stay another day in the French metropolis, in order to view that masterpiece of sculpture. The whole of my remaining time therefore was taken up in bidding adieu to my Parisian friends; and rambling in a cabriolet (a hackney one-horse chaise with a head to it), to take a last general survey of what the French call the capital of Europe.

In the course of our ride we passed the Temple; where I ordered the driver to stop, that I might indulge in the luxury of reflecting that I was on the point of changing a country where such a diabolical house of detention still exists, for one where Rational Liberty holds her empire. This building, which formerly belonged to the knights-templars, has nothing particular to attract the attention of the traveller, except its having been the scene of the most atrocious crimes which have been committed in modern days. The great tower, together with the four turrets, was built in the year 1200 by one of the brotherhood, named

Hubert. I need not add, that it was the place where Lewis XVI. and his queen were confined.

After leaving the Temple, I traversed the *Place de la Concorde*, where that unfortunate monarch was beheaded: and then visited the *Magdalen*; where his remains were, in the most indecent manner, committed to the earth, with quick-lime thrown upon them. What a lesson is to be derived from the view of these three spots!

In driving along the *Boulevards*, I stopped to have a farewell look at the two triumphal arches erected for Lewis XIV. the gates of St. Denis and St. Martin: the former built in 1672, after the design of Blondel; the ornaments and sculpture by Lebrun, and Michel and Francis Angier. The latter was erected in 1674, from the designs of Peter Ballet: and is ornamented with four *bas-reliefs*, executed by Dujardin, Maroq, Lehongre, and Legroi; representing the capture of Besançon, the triple alliance, the capture of Limbourg, and the defeat of the Germans.

It is quite astonishing, in riding along the *Boulevards*, to observe the immense number of coffee-houses, places of public amusement, tea-gardens, &c. not to mention the hosts of tumblers, jugglers, and hardy-gurdy players. Many of the three last descriptions are paid by the government, in order to divert the people and, by putting them into a good humour, to prevent them from meddling with state-affairs; which, they are given to understand, do not concern them.

I revisited with much pleasure the tapestry-manufactory of the Gobelins, the productions of which certainly nothing can exceed. The method used in working these beautiful pieces is extremely curious: the person employed sits with his back to the picture he is copying; his upright loom is before him, and he works his worsted through the web, which continues constantly with the wrong side towards him; the picture forming itself by degrees on the opposite side of the web, which he does not see. This manufactory was first established by Gilles Gobelins, of Rheims, in the reign of Francis I. principally for dyeing; and the minister Colbert brought it to its present state of perfection in 1667, by giving encouragement to foreign artists. The whole of its produce belongs exclusively to the government; and serves as presents to the different courts, as well as to ornament the national palaces.

I found that Paris had been very much improved during my stay at Nancy; and further great improvements are

daily making, both for its salubrity and embellishment. Among others may be enumerated the construction of a beautiful bridge, called the Bridge of the Arts, over the Seine, opposite to the Louvre: there is a toll for passing it; and the persons who take this on contract, in order to induce passengers to cross, have placed on the bridge two beautiful rows of orange-trees; under which we may receive the breezes from the river, after a hot summer's day, for the moderate sum of a halfpenny.

I finally quitted Paris on the 19th, at three o'clock in the morning, and slept at Ronancourt the first night; in the journey to which there was little to arrest the attention of the traveller, except Versailles, which I have already described to you. The next night I slept at Alençon, after dining at Mortagne; in whose neighbourhood is the celebrated abbey of La Trappe, an account of which I shall give you at the end of this. I found little worthy of remark at Alençon: its principal trade consists in linen, lace, stuffs, and a sort of false diamond which is dug near it: there is a beautiful walk at the end of the town.

I passed the third night on the road; but supped at Laval, the neighbourhood of which witnessed many a bloody conflict between the republicans and the royalists; when the latter bravely defended their king and religion against the horrid tyranny of the wretches who had usurped the seat of government. The commencement of this glorious struggle was stamped with all the enthusiasm, and all the disinterested devotion, which reflected so much honour on those who nobly exposed themselves for the re-establishment of order; but in its concluding periods degenerated into the savage fury, which always distinguishes contending factions after a long and sanguinary contest. The cause which the insurgents (as they were styled) undertook, was deserving of a better fate: they fought for every thing which contributes to social order, against the greatest impiety and immorality that can be imagined. An incomparably good account of the war in La Vendée, and of the Chouans, has been published by M. Bonehamp, which I would recommend you to peruse. It bears the mark of great impartiality; and will furnish, at some future period, many interesting details for the historian who may attempt to give a perfect view of the French revolution.

Laval is situated beautifully on the Mayenne, and is famous for its linens. I passed through Vitré in the night, and arrived at Rennes about nine o'clock in the morning.

After taking the warm bath and a little sleep, I went out to examine this ancient town. Its principal modern buildings are the palace of the parliament, and the town house. There are some very beautiful walks and squares; and many vestiges of old citadels, formerly the residence of the *chevaliers*. Rennes suffered greatly from fire in 1720, when 850 houses were burnt to the ground; and on the spot thus left vacant, were erected the edifices which now form its greater ornaments. The old part of the town is dirty and inconvenient, the streets being very narrow: this quarter was the residence of most of the ancient nobility of Brittany.

Having passed a single night at Rennes, I proceeded to Bron, where I slept in consequence of being very much fatigued. The next night I slept at St. Brieux, and the following night at Belleisle; and reached this place the day after. On my arrival I waited upon the maritime prefect; who informed me that it was necessary to send an express to Brest in order to get my passport revised, and to obtain a permit to leave the empire. This, and some little difficulty that I found in procuring a vessel, have detained me here much longer (as you may imagine) than I wished; and during my stay in this town, which has but little worth notice, I thought I could not employ myself better than by committing to paper the foregoing remarks, though very likely I shall be the bearer of this letter myself to England. But as you are at some distance from the place where I shall disembark, it will reach you long before I have the happiness of shaking you by the hand; and you having taken the trouble to preserve my observations on this country, with a view (as you state, *with my permission*) to offer them to the public, I think it will be necessary to send you this as a sequel to my other letters.

Morlaix, in time of peace, carries on a very considerable trade; but now its harbour bears the marks of the greatest distress. The inhabitants are very inveterate against Buonaparte: not only from being attached to general Moreau, who was born here; but also because *the emperor* will attend to no remonstrance that is sent to him from this town, merely (as they assert) for that reason.

I shall now conclude the last of my letters on *this* side of the water, by giving you an account of the abbey of La Trappe. I may possibly add a postscript on *the other* side: as perhaps you may be desirous of knowing how I performed my *voyage*; and my sensations at setting foot once more on my native land, after so long and so painful an absence.

Description of the celebrated Abbey of La Trappe.

(Translated from the French.)

This abbey is situated in the diocese of Suz; in a valley of considerable extent, on the borders of Perche and Normandy. One might imagine that nature itself had designed the place as a retirement for penitential sorrow. It is surrounded by woods, hills, and lakes, which render it almost inaccessible: the air is unhealthy, and darkened with a perpetual thick fog; the valley however contains arable lands, fruit-trees, and meadows. A death-like silence seems to have prevailed in this solitary spot, from time immemorial. It is impossible to describe the overwhelming sadness, the sort of terror, which the mind feels at its approach; a mixture of religious fear and superstitious awe. What a picture is here afforded for the melancholy imagination of the painter or the poet! The hollow murmur of the trees which have withstood many a winter's blast, and at which the soul starts back appalled, with the distant roar of the waterfall, announce the abbey of La Trappe. The access to it is difficult without a guide. After descending a mountain, we pass over a wild heath: we then arrive at a circuitous hollow way, where suddenly we discover the abbey in all its majestic austerity.

The first court which we enter is separated from that of the monks. Above the door is the statue of St. Bernard, holding a spade in one hand and a church in the other; which seems to inculcate that in every establishment founded by wisdom, labour will be united to piety. The second court is planted with fruit-trees; by the inside of which are a poultry yard, granaries, cells, stables, a brew-house, a baking-house, and other buildings necessary for a convent. At a short distance is a mill, the water of which takes its rise in the neighbouring lakes.

"The Abbey of the house of God," or "Our Lady of Trappe," (for these were its original names,) was founded by Rotrou, the second count of Perche, in the year 1140; during the life of St. Bernard, the pontificate of Innocent III. and the reign of Lewis VII. of France, in consequence of a vow made (in the true spirit of the times) by Rotrou when in danger of being shipwrecked. On his safe arrival in his own country, he hastened to perform his sacred engagement; and in order to transmit to posterity a monument analogous to the subject, he had the roof of the building constructed in the form of a vessel reversed, which it pre-

served till destroyed by the revolution. It was consecrated in the name of the Virgin, 1214; by Robert archbishop of Rouën, Raoul bishop of Evreux, and Silvester bishop of Suz. The name of "Our Lady of La Trappe" corresponds to that of "Our Lady of the Steps;" for in approaching the church there are ten or twelve steps to be descended, and *trappe* is an old provincial word signifying *step*.

This abbey was famed during several centuries, for the austerity and irreproachable morals of its priors and monks. The horrors of the ancient civil wars; the incursions of the English; and time which destroys all things, even the most rigid virtue; introduced a laxity of principle into this religious institution: to such a degree, that the monastery became notorious for every species of licentiousness, and was a scandal to the country. Hunting, and other amusements more profane, were the sole occupation of the monks; and their life was one continued scene of debauchery, when the celebrated De Rancé came to take refuge in the convent.

Don Armand Jean le Bouthillier de Rancé, regular prior and the reformer of the abbey of Our Lady of La Trappe, and a rigid member of the order of Citeaux, was born at Paris the 9th of January 1626. He sprung from an ancient family in Brittany; his ancestors having held the post of cup-bearer to the dukes of that province, from which circumstance they took the name of *le Bouthillier* (or *Butler*). His cradle was surrounded by presages of fortune and grandeur: cardinal Richelieu was his godfather, and Mary of Medicis honoured him with her peculiar protection. He was made a knight of Malta in his infancy, and was destined for the profession of arms; but having become the eldest son at the age of ten by the death of his brother, he took orders, and succeeded to all the livings which the latter had before possessed. His early years announced a character of very superior merit: he became licentiate with great credit to himself; took the degree of doctor in 1654; was appointed almoner to the duke of Orleans; and distinguished himself much in the assembly of the clergy in 1655, as a deputy of the second class. He passed some months in the seminary of St. Lazarus, under the tuition of Vincent de Paul; who laid the foundation of those virtuous principles in his young breast, which were afterwards developed by the bishop of Aloth. He refused the coadjutorship of the archbishopric of Tours; and what still more proves his indifference to honours and titles, he did not fear

to be at variance with the cardinal Mazarine, in order to attach himself closer to the cardinal Retz in those times of trial which friendship seldom resists. The Abbé de Rancé was born with that pathetic eloquence which is the characteristic of feeling souls: he excelled particularly in exhorting persons on their death-bed, and it should be remembered that it requires no ordinary talent to console a man on the brink of his grave, and assist him in his endeavours to quit without regret the dream of life: so few are prepared to die!

At the death of his father, De Rancé found himself possessed of nearly two thousand livres * a year; a very considerable revenue in those times. Besides being young and rich, he united to external beauty, high birth, wit, grace, and the ease of manner to be acquired only in courts. It is difficult for any one, with such advantages, to preserve that strictness of morals which is generally the result of misfortune, or the child of retirement. The abbé De Rancé gave himself up entirely to the flattering delusions which surrounded him: his profession occupied him very little; but he was fond of gaming, hunting, dissipation, and luxury. Memoirs of the times in which he lived, mention that a tender passion which he entertained for a lady of high rank (though represented by others as entirely platonic), was not founded on so pure a basis. Whatever was the fact, De Rancé, after the death of the lady (who was celebrated for her beauty, and for every talent that could captivate), gave vent to an excess of affliction seldom to be met with. He retired to the thickest forests, there to shed a torrent of tears; and addressed the object of his love as if she had been present. His despair even inspired him with an idea that there were means of raising the dead. This unbounded grief soon brought him nearly to the grave himself, and his convalescence merely renewed his sorrows; time, which usually offers consolation to the afflicted, only serving to confirm his melancholy. The misfortunes of cardinal Retz, the sport of fortune; and those of Gaston, who was deprived suddenly of life in the midst of surrounding grandeur; had prepared his mind to receive an impression of the frivolity of human illusions. Being now undeceived respecting a passion that perhaps possesses the strongest dominion over us, he had the courage to resist the lures which many agreeable women held out to him, in

* Between 831. and 841.

order to bring him back to the path of pleasure. Disgusted with the world, he could only consider it as an immense tomb. He felt all the force of the important truth, that there is no friend, no consoler, equal to our Maker; and his whole soul was absorbed in this grand idea. From that moment, he resigned all his temporal possessions; and gave to the *Hôtel Dieu* and the hospital, three abbey and priories which were at his disposal. On renouncing these livings, he reserved to himself the abbey of La Trappe, but with the sole intention of placing himself at the head of it. He retired to Perséigne; where he took the cowl, for which he had always before felt so much repugnance. He made his vows on the 6th of June 1664; and went immediately to shut himself from the world in the solitude of La Trappe, where his grief and religious despair seem in some degree rendered immortal. He immediately began to regulate this establishment, on the model of the order of St. Benoit in its greatest purity. Among all the reforms of the Cîteaux, there is not one so austere as that of La Trappe. It is unnecessary to expatiate on the great trouble and care which the abbé De Rancé bestowed on this convent, and the numerous enemies that he had to encounter. This illustrious person ended his career with the century: he died on the 20th of October 1700; at the age of 74 years, nine months, and seventeen days. During his life he enjoyed the respect and esteem which virtue always commands. James II. of England, the queen his wife, Monsieur brother to the king, mademoiselle de Guise, &c. visited him frequently; and always came away benefited by the wise precepts which he impressed on their minds.

The number of the monks of La Trappe was very considerable: in 1765 they consisted of sixty-nine for the choir, fifty-six styled *converts*, and nine called *donnés*. An eternal silence is the first principle of this establishment, and the basis of its statutes. It was so important in the eyes of its founder, that he used to say, breaking silence or uttering blasphemy was the same crime to them. The language of La Trappe always consisted less of words than of signs. If any of the monks are obliged to violate this rigid law, they express themselves in a low tone of voice, and utter no more than is absolutely necessary. Many, even in the agony of death, have been known even to observe this ordinance so strictly, that they have chosen rather to die at once, than to ask for those things which would have restored or relieved them. They have no communication

with each other, either by speaking or writing, without permission; and to avoid every opportunity of the former, it is prohibited for two of the fraternity to remain together. The following anecdote is found in a memoir written by a rector of Normandy: Two brothers had lived in La Trappe ten or twelve years without knowing each other. The eldest, when at the point of death, mentioned to the superior of the convent, that he felt only one trouble on his mind: and this was, he had a brother in the world who stood in great danger respecting his salvation. On this the superior, being affected with compassion, sent for his brother, and permitted them to embrace before the elder expired.

The monks walk often in the woods; on which occasion they leave the convent at the sound of a bell, each with a book in his hand, and preserving a most profound silence, having their superior at the head of them. They employ an hour and a half, during the walk, in meditating on the sublime beauties of religion; and return in the same order to the monastery. When they meet each other, they bow their heads; but never prostrate themselves, except before their superior, and strangers. They live in a perpetual mortification of the senses: their food is served with only salt and water, and consists of vegetables, roots, and milk; their drink at their meals is very indifferent cyder and beer; wine is never served in the refectory, and very seldom even in the hospital: their bread is something like biscuit. They retire to bed at eight o'clock in the summer, and seven in the winter; and rise at two to attend morning-prayer, which lasts till a quarter past four. It is an awful scene to behold fifty or sixty monks assembled in the chapel, which is lighted only by one solitary lamp: sometimes they are prostrate, and sometimes standing up to proclaim the praise of the Supreme Being. They work three hours in the course of the day; an hour and a half in the morning, and the same after dinner: this work consists of cultivating the ground, washing, the care of the stables, and sweeping the cloisters: they employ themselves also in writing religious works, binding them, doing carpenter's and turner's work, and making spoons of box-wood and baskets of osier. At the appointed hour a bell is tolled, which is the signal for them to retire to rest: each then lies down, without taking off his clothes, on a bed of deal boards covered only with a straw matress, a pillow, and a blanket. The furniture of these apartments consists of a small table, a straw-bottomed chair, a box without a lock, and two tressles to support the bed.

Physicians are in all cases excluded from La Trappe. The sick, who are never allowed to keep their bed, are obliged to rise at half past three, and retire at the same hour as the rest of the fraternity; and they assist in all the masses that are held in the choir of the infirmary. The remainder of the day is employed by them in reading, praying, and in work proportioned to their strength: they are not even permitted to lean against the back of their chair for rest. They are constantly doomed to a rigorous silence, which is still more awful in the night; and are not suffered to cast their eyes on what is going forward in the infirmary. The use of broth is not allowed till the patient has had four or five attacks of fever, and most of them consider the acceptance of this nourishment as a want of fortitude. They abstain from meat to the last; and go to church, leaning on the arm of the person who has the charge of the hospital, to receive the sacrament there: they return in the same manner; and are then laid on the straw and ashes, to await the stroke of death, surrounded by the whole fraternity. At these moments acts of the greatest heroism have been displayed. They are then allowed to speak, and the dying monk addresses an exhortation to those who stand about him: they now make a public confession of all their faults. Being already dead to their own will, they obey not only the superior, but the most trifling signs from their companions. They are so anxious to suffer, that they add voluntary mortifications to those which their order imposes; and a serenity, arising from the internal satisfaction which they feel, is constantly to be seen on their faces, so that one would imagine their joy to increase in proportion to their austerity.

When a new member takes the oaths, he renounces all his worldly concerns, and many have been known to refuse a parting interview to their dearest friends and relations. The convent distributes a great quantity of bread and even money to the poor. When the superior learns the death of any friend or relation of any of the monks, he recommends the departed soul to the prayers of the fraternity, without specifying the particular monk whose relation it is. When any person visits the convent, the porter, who is one of the monks, opens the door, repeating *Deo gratias* ("Thanks to God!"), kneels down, and prostrates himself: he then takes the visitor into a parlour, and goes to inform the superior; who desires the monk that is appointed to

take charge of all visitors, to go and receive him. As soon as he sees the stranger, he prostrates himself also; takes him to the church, where he presents to him holy water; then reads to him a part of some religious work, after having conducted him to an apartment allotted for that purpose; and utters *benedicite* ("God bless you,") as a salutation. The visitor's table is served in the same manner as that of the monks, but with the addition of a plate of eggs; they never offer him fish, though their ponds are full of them: sometimes they bring wine to such as are not well; and during the repast, read a prayer to them. Visitors are seldom admitted to the refectory, lest they should draw off the attention of the monks from their meditations. It is necessary to observe, that at every step you meet with verses on the walls, by way of exhortation.

La Reforme de Sept-Fours, almost two leagues from Bourbon Lancy, is nearly on the same footing as the convent of La Trappe: it was established by Eustace de Beaufort in the last century.

Here ends the translation. It is unnecessary for me to make any comment on this most extraordinary institution. It seems to have been founded with a view to hold up to the profligate of every description, an expiatory asylum; and a place of refuge from the hand of the law, to those who preferred a perpetual seclusion from mankind, to the loss of life upon the scaffold. The ends of public justice were thus in a great measure defeated, at least in point of example; but had the names of many of those unfortunate wretches been published, mankind in general would have considered the penance which they performed at La Trappe, infinitely greater than what they would have undergone in a legal execution. The author whom I have translated above, concludes by stating this convent to have been founded with a view "to form an establishment where guilt, stung with remorse, might throw itself into the bosom of consoling Omnipotence; where the excess of penitence might wipe away the enormity of transgression, and to reserve for compunction the hope of one day partaking of the reward of virtue."

POSTSCRIPT.

Salcomb, 1st August, 1806.

I arrived here yesterday afternoon, about five o'clock, after a good passage of twenty-four hours, during which

time I was extremely ill from sea-sickness. Our original destination was Plymouth: but the wind proving unfavourable, we put into this place; where I fortunately met a very old friend, who was kind enough to afford me all the comforts of which I stood so much in need.

I can now, thank heaven, commit my thoughts to paper without the risk of suffering from the displeasure of the man who so cruelly unbittered the last three years of my life. What I felt on my arrival in England, cannot be described. My joy was so great, that if I had not been relieved by a flood of tears (the sweetest I ever shed), I sincerely believe it might have had bad consequences. At the moment of my leaving Morlaix, peace between Russia and France was proclaimed, after a very short negotiation with M. D'Oubril. No sensation was produced on the minds of the people by this proclamation: they say that peace with all the world, except England, is of very little advantage to them. "A peace with Russia," say they, "will not procure us the means of exporting our corn, our wine, our brandy, and our oil; of all which we have an immense quantity stored up in our repositories." Indeed, in the different countries through which I passed, including Touraine, the farmers have at this moment three crops of corn on hand, besides the very fine one which they are on the point of reaping; and this is in consequence of the impossibility of exporting a single quarter without our permission. The result has been, that Buonaparte has received remonstrances from almost every department, stating the poverty of the people in regard to *money*; and their consequent inability to pay their taxes otherwise than *in kind*, unless some method is adopted for the exportation of their superfluous commodities. From this you may naturally conclude that they are in some degree starving in the midst of their abundance: yet the government is rich; in consequence of its armies having been long fed and clothed by the unfortunate Germans, and the heavy contributions that have been levied on the conquered countries.

Mr. Williams concludes his interesting detail with ridiculing the fears of the people of England respecting an invasion by the French, it being well known in France that such an attempt is not intended to be made.

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SEMPLE'S JOURNEY

THROUGH

SPAIN and ITALY.

Observations on a Journey through Spain and Italy, to Naples; and thence to Smyrna and Constantinople: comprising a Description of the principal Places in that Route, and Remarks on the present national and political State of those Countries. By ROBERT SEMPLE, Author of *Walks and Sketches in the Valley of Good Hope, &c.* 2 vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. BALDWIN'S, 1808.

MR. Semple is a gentleman in the mercantile line; but he has already acquired no inconsiderable share of approbation by his literary acquirements. He is not, however, one of those literary characters who travel for the sole purpose of observing men and manners; on the contrary, his journeys appear to have originated through business; and the notes which he collects, he amuses himself in arranging for the press, to dispel the tedium of his returning voyage. In a preface, however, to the volumes before us, he mentions a ludicrous accident which happened to him. When about to methodise his journal upon deck, all his notes were blown overboard; so that, we are informed, the whole matter of the work has been written from memory. We will nevertheless observe, that those who may read the various and pleasing information which it contains, will not conceive such an apology to be necessary. The events also which have lately happened in the countries that the author remarks upon, give additional interest to his performance.

Mr. Semple (who is an American by birth, and passed as such on the continent) left London on the 26th of June, 1805, to go to Madrid. He went in the Lisbon packet, and nothing worth notice occurred till he entered the Tagus. He makes the following observations on

SEMPLE.]

B

THE CITY OF LISBON AND ITS ENVIRONS.

This city can never cease to be a place of consequence whilst trade and commerce flourish in Europe. Had it not been for political events and considerations, it would probably have become the capital of Spain, there being no situation possessed of equal advantages in the whole peninsula, as it may be called, of Europe, south of the Pyrenees. It is built upon several hills, the number of which it is not easy to ascertain amidst so many buildings; but which the natives say, amount to seven, like those of ancient Rome. It may rather be said to stand upon an arch of the sea, into which the Tagus falls, than upon the Tagus itself; that river not being navigable even for boats in all its long course, till within twelve or fourteen leagues of Lisbon, and the water before the town being salt, and frequently so rough, as to endanger the ships at anchor there. The inhabitants of Lisbon, however, who are jealous of the honour of their river, affirm this to be a frivolous distinction, and that in the time of the rains, an immense body of fresh water is here brought down, so as often to cause more damage to the shipping than is ever occasioned by the wind and tide from the sea. However that may be, the situation is admirable, and the town, full of churches, palaces, domes, and spires, rising from the edge of the water up the ascents and over the tops of so many hills, presents from the bay one of the noblest views that can be imagined, and superior perhaps to that of any city in the world. In whatever situation we view it during our approach, it is imposing, but when we land the delusion vanishes. The streets are badly paved and full of filth; the houses, with here and there a latticed window, have a melancholy appearance, and the inhabitants, some in rags, and the remainder in dark coloured clothes, render the whole still more gloomy. The powerful influence of climate already becomes perceptible. The Portuguese are generally dark complexioned and thin, with black hair, irascible and revengeful in their tempers, and eager in their gestures on trivial occasions. They are also said to be indolent, deceitful, and cowardly; but they are temperate in diet, and that may be classed at the head of their virtues, if indeed they have many more to add to it. They affect to talk of the Spaniards with great contempt, as being perhaps the next despicable nation to themselves with which they are acquainted. They have no public spirit, and consequently no national character. An Englishman or Frenchman may be distinguished in foreign

countries by an air and manners peculiar to his nation, and which he would attempt in vain to disguise; but any meagre swarthy man may pass for a Portuguese.

The government has all the weakness of despotism in its old age. The prince is the ignorant and superstitious chief of an ignorant and superstitious people. His navy depends on England for its best officers, and his army is in all respects despicable; but he heads a procession of monks better than any man in Europe, and if the French could be beaten with wax-tapers, the Portuguese might give peace to the world. Conformably to this disposition, the churches, convents, and monasteries are magnificent, and generally full of rich ornaments, fine marbles, mosaic work and paintings. No good man will laugh at any sincere attempt to pay a tribute of respect to the Supreme Being; but in Portugal he will observe with sorrow the numerous and miserable superstitions with which all such attempts are mingled. But let us wait a little, and not decide on the first impressions of comparison between this country and England; let us compare it with others. ~~At~~ ^{When} beginning our journey, and before we get to the end of it may find other nations within the pale of the Romish church, equally under its subjection. We may safely decide then that the Portuguese are grossly superstitious; but that they are more so than any other sect of Christians remains yet to be observed. For building their new churches and religious houses, certain taxes are granted by government, and as these taxes are continued till the building be finished, it is astonishing how long a time it takes to complete them. The pious man, who has contributed, perhaps voluntarily, a certain annual sum toward building a church, feels loth that for want of one more year, and one more year's contribution, so good a work should fail. He therefore goes on contributing to the end of his life, and when he dies, makes sure of his soul by a donation in his will to the church of the Mother of God, or of the Heart of Jesus. Meanwhile the monks, who have the administration of all these sums, go on thrivingly, and are indeed the only fat people in Portugal.

The part of Lisbon most deserving of attention is that which suffered so severely in the dreadful earthquake of 1755. It is not merely that all the flat at the foot of the amphitheatre of the surrounding hills is rebuilt in a regular manner, and excellently paved; but the ruins of great buildings still remaining on the tops of the heights in the heart of a populous city, have a singular and striking effect.

Other nations erect monuments at a great expence, in commemoration of battles, earthquakes, and wide wasting fires. But nothing can speak so home to the heart as these awful remains which stand in perpetual memento to the inhabitants of Lisbon, of what has happened, and may again happen to the city.

The churches and the theatres, says Mr. S. will naturally first attract the stranger; and the ruins cannot fail to awaken serious reflections. Should he be disposed to continue them he may ascend one of the hills, on the top of which, surrounded by a high wall, and planted thickly with trees, is the English burying ground. There is always to me something affecting in the sight of the grave of a fellow countryman in a foreign land; how much more when they are crowded so thickly together. Among the many who came here for health and found a grave, lies Henry Fielding, an unrivalled delineator of human life and manners, and whose name will be remembered as long as true humour shall be relished in England. Quitting the burying ground and keeping the heights, we soon find ourselves on the outskirts of the town, which are composed of very mean houses; and inhabited by a race among whom cleanliness in all its branches appears wholly neglected, and where swine and miserable dogs are stretched out upon heaps of filth before every door. Fortunately this does not last long, and we presently come into the open fields on the north-west side of the town. The country, at this season, looks brown and parched up, and is wholly destitute of enclosures; a number of country seats, however, at a little distance, surrounded by trees and intermingled with vineyards, must, immediately after the rainy season form a beautiful prospect. On the heights to the left is a range of windmills, which being I suppose, similar to those used in Spain, tend to illustrate a passage in Don Quixote. Judging from those on the banks of the Thames, and throughout England; I had always hitherto considered the account of the battle with the windmills, as too extravagant even for that knight: but those of this country being little, round, sturdy fellows about ten or twelve feet in height, might pass for the ghosts of giants, even to a sober English peasant, on a moon light night. Passing onwards we come to a deep and narrow valley, over which is thrown the noblest aqueduct which has been erected in Europe since the time of the Romans. It is, perhaps, the last also that will be erected for the sole end of carrying water for

common purposes; the discovery that fluids when conveyed in pipes will rise to nearly their level, superseding the use of such stupendous structures. It consists of thirty-five arches, the centre one of immense height, but they are greatly too narrow in proportion, when viewed from a little distance. The inhabitants of Lisbon boast that they are the highest single arches in the world, which may be true; but a double and triple row would have been equally more useful and far more elegant. A noble pathway, bordered by a wall of solid blocks of stone, leads across the summit, nearly on a level with the water, which makes a perpetual running sound on the inside. This sound is echoed along the arched stone roof of the aqueduct, and excites a pleasing sensation in the mind of the passenger, who turning to the other hand, and looking over the parapet, beholds beneath him, at a great depth, the stony bed of a considerable stream, under the center arch, and which in winter must run with all the fury of a mountain torrent. Over this stream a bridge is thrown, and a road leads through the valley; the travellers on which, when viewed from above, seemed diminished in size to the circumference of their hats. Upon the whole, this aqueduct is justly a national boast among the Portuguese; and in a country where so few great undertakings, not connected with religion, are carried to perfection, it stands like a giant amidst pigmies and abortions. It is singular that the same nation have erected in America the only great, perhaps the only, aqueduct which exists in all that continent. It is near the town of Rio Janeiro, and is thrown across a valley wider than that near Lisbon. I only saw this last at some little distance, yet I cannot help thinking that the two were constructed at no great distance of time from each other, and that whichever was the first, served as a model to the second.

PORTUGUESE PEASANTRY.

Among the peasantry, says Mr. Semple, who come in from the country, especially on Sundays, it is easy to observe a number of particulars in dress and manners which must be referred to a Celtic origin. Instead of hats they frequently wear caps or bonnets; the ancient plaid too warm to be carried in this climate as a cloak, is converted into a party-coloured sash, which they wear round the middle, and in which they uniformly carry a dirk or long knife; and their favourite instrument is the bagpipe adorned

SEMPLE'S TRAVELS

with ribbons, exactly similar to that used in the highlands of Scotland. To the sound of this very ancient instrument, two or three of them together dance a kind of reel, or if the tune be slow and solemn, the piper walks backward and forward amidst a silent and attentive crowd. In their lively dances they raise their hands above the head and keep time with their castanets. The Scottish highlanders observe exactly the same practice, and I am fully persuaded that their strong snapping of the fingers is in imitation of the sound of the castanet.

The inconveniences of travelling on the continent are too well known to be worth descanting on; though our author gives a lamentable picture of *his* sufferings on proceeding from Lisbon to Madrid: we, however, collect from them, that travelling is much better in all parts of Spain than in any part of Portugal. The Portuguese are described as a miserable race, on whom the Spaniards look with contempt.

On arriving at the Spanish frontiers, Mr. Semple gives the following

CONTRASTED CHARACTER OF THE FRENCH AND SPANIARDS.

As we approach Badajoz, the country becomes more fertile, and better cultivated; which indeed ought to be the case near a populous town, and on the banks of the Guadiana, one of the great rivers of Spain. We cross this fine stream, which however is not yet navigable, upon an excellent stone bridge, and immediately pass under the gates of Badajoz, where our passports are examined, and after the necessary ceremony of paying a trifling sum to custom-house officers, we are left free to find our way all over the kingdom.

Badajoz (pronounced Badajoz) is the frontier town of Spain on this frontier, as Elvas is of Portugal, and is therefore strongly fortified and garrisoned. The Spanish soldiers who throng the gates are stouter, and have a more martial look than those we have just left behind us; but I seek in vain for that honest freedom which marks the soldier of England. One of my companions having business to transact here, we remain the rest of the day, and have time to observe, that even in the frontier towns, a strong line of distinction is drawn between the two nations. The Spaniard is more determined in his mind and manners; his cloak thrown over his shoulders hint something of the air of a man of courage, whilst

the same custom with the Portuguese manners, gives only the look of an assassin. But if we notice the difference between the men, it is still more apparent in the women of the two countries. The air, the dress, the walk of the Spanish ladies is not only superior to that of their neighbours, but perhaps of any European nation. The lower part of their dress is black, with deep fringes; the upper consists simply of a white muslin veil, which, without covering the face, falls down on each side of the head, crosses over the bosom, and is fastened behind the back. They walk with freedom; their eyes are dark and expressive, and their whole countenances have that bewitching air which an Englishman likes well enough to see in any woman except his wife, his sister, or the woman he truly loves and respects.

Having spent the afternoon in viewing Badajoz, we prepared for an early departure on the ensuing morning. We were on horseback before sunrise, and arrived at the gate leading toward the country just as it opened. A number of peasants with their horses, mules, and asses loaded with fruits and vegetables, who had been long in waiting, rushed in like a torrent, and almost carried us away with them. We had no resource but to spur up our horses, and force our way through with no small detriment to many a pannier of figs and apricots. For some time after leaving Badajoz, the road is confined, but we soon came to immense uncultivated plains, bordered all round by distant mountains, except close upon our right, where were small hills with a gentle slope. At a distance in the plains lay Talavera la Real, three leagues from Badajoz, and our next stage. These plains are kept from cultivation by the express interference of government for the benefit of the Spanish sheep, which certainly derive from such pastures the superior excellence of their wool. Not only Estremadura, but all the inland provinces, abound with these commons; with respect to which the prejudices of the inhabitants are insurmountable. "Why do you not plough up these fertile deserts?" said I to a Spaniard, "encourage agriculture, the real basis of the greatness of kingdoms, and your country may yet rank with the first in Europe." "I see," replied he, "that you have the prejudice common to most foreigners. These deserts, as you call them, are the glory of Spain, for it is from these pastures that is formed the finest wool in the world." It is needless to expose the ignorant fallacy of this reasoning, which however is here universal, and it is not

without regret that an Englishman beholds the finest plains in Europe abandoned and uncultivated.

Our author had to travel on horseback a distance of four hundred miles, chiefly along the banks of the Guadiana. He describes his ride as singularly romantic, and it was rendered the more so by a knowledge that the deep forests, on the borders of which he passed, were the resort of banditti. Travellers generally proceed in small parties, accompanied by a guide; each person being armed with a brace of pistols, and having a portmanteau on his horse.

SAN ILDEFONSO.

Our author proceeded on the 10th of September to this city, which is situated about 50 miles to the north of Madrid, on the opposite side of the Guadarrama. An itinerary of the route precedes the description which he gives of the city.

San Ildefonso, says he, or, as it is sometimes called, La Granja, is a kind of royal village, having become of consequence entirely from one of the kings of Spain having chosen this spot to form a country residence. It is situated at the foot of a very lofty and steep conical hill, covered with trees, and connected with the still loftier mountains of Guadarrama. The king's palace, the public offices, and the barracks of the guards, form three sides of an oblong, of which the palace is the head. The lower end is enclosed by a handsome iron railing with gates, and the ground is here still sufficiently high to command a view over all the plains approaching to Segovia. Within these gates are the royal manufactories of glass, and various other articles, which the king endeavours to monopolize. The consequences of this foolish plan, of a king becoming a manufacturer, and retailing wine-glasses by the dozen, are such as might be expected. The establishments are maintained at an immense expense, and with a great annual loss. Mirrors excepted, the articles in general are not better, nor even equal to those made in other countries; and individuals are effectually deterred from undertaking speculations profitable to their country, while their monarch can come into the market, and magnanimously sell his goods for less than they cost him. This, among a thousand other instances, may serve to shew how little the very elementary principles of political economy are understood in this country.

Leaving then the manufactories, let us visit the great ornaments of San Ildefonso, namely, the gardens and water-works, the latter of which are said to be equal or superior to those of Versailles. The first are formal, cut into parterres, and ornamented with leaden statues and vases; but the latter, when playing, are certainly magnificent. One, called the fountain of fame, throws up a considerable column of water to the height of fifty feet, and is then clearly visible from Segovia, at the distance of ten miles. To supply the different fountains a reservoir is formed at the head of the gardens, which lie on a continual ascent. This reservoir is called by the pompous name of el Mar, or the sea; although it is not superior in extent to many artificial pieces of water in gentlemen's seats in England. Notwithstanding the depth, which is considerable, it does not furnish water sufficient to make all the fountains play more than two or three times in a year, one of which is always fixed for the great feast of St. John. A stream of very clear water rises among the mountains, or rather rushes immediately from them, and falls into the reservoir, which is kept at a regular height by sluices. This water, although so pure, is found to disagree very much with strangers; probably because being so near the source, and running between steep and dark banks, always shaded, it is not sufficiently purified by exposure to the sun and air; and, as the Spanish physicians say, comes crude to the stomach. Almost immediately above the reservoir, the hill rises exceedingly steep and high, to a sharp and conical summit. In the woods, which grow near the foot of this hill, large inclosures are made to confine the game, in shooting which the king takes great delight. Considerable tracts of ground are also appropriated to this purpose in various directions. The prado, or public walk of San Ildefonso, is part of the great road leading to Segovia, and is shaded on both sides with trees. There is also a handsome little theatre, to which the best performers from Madrid repair; but these were not to me objects of much curiosity.

SEGOVIA.

To be so near Segovia, and not to have seen it, would have been unpardonable, and I took an opportunity of visiting it. It was past mid-day before I set off, and after an easy ride I reached it at two o'clock, by a good broad road, bordered at the beginning with trees, but through

an open and badly cultivated country. Segovia retains more traces of the Moors than any town I have yet seen in Spain. The inn where we put up, had no doubt been formerly a magnificent abode, being built in the form of a hollow square, with an arcade round the interior, supported by pillars in the Moorish, or perhaps, to speak more correctly, the eastern taste. The cathedral is little more than two hundred and fifty years old, but is built in the gothic style; with a simplicity and grandeur which clearly shew, that the race of architects, who erected similar magnificent and singular piles all over Europe, was at that period not yet extinct. Its internal decorations are also not unworthy of notice, particularly a beautiful marble statue of St. John, and a groupe of figures carved in wood in a most admirable style. In a small room or chapel there is a roof carved with great taste, and adorned with pure white and burnished gold. It appeared to me that I had never seen any thing more elegant, nor gold better employed. On leaving this chapel, I took a last view of the lofty arches of the cathedral, and from thence repaired to the alcazar, or castle. This is built upon a rock, surrounded by a deep natural fosse, except where it is joined, if I may so say, to the main land, by a causeway, in which is cut a deep ditch with a draw-bridge. The situation greatly resembles that of Edinburgh castle, and I do not doubt owes its origin to the same natural causes. Here is kept a military school for young men destined to form officers of artillery, and a collection of plans of fortifications, models of military engines, and the best books relating to the art of war. The roofs of many of the chambers where these are kept, are adorned in the same manner as that of the chapel of the cathedral, being fretted with gold. They were also bordered with inscriptions, in characters which appeared to me very similar to those of the ancient Saxons; but which were equally unintelligible to my guide and myself; he affirmed, however, that the Russian ambassador, when there, decyphered the characters, although he did not understand the language in which they were written. We were shewn a window looking over the steepest part of the rock, out of which, in former times, a young prince of Spain fell, and was dashed to pieces.

Having visited all the interior of the Alcazar, I went, before quitting Segovia, to take a last look at the Roman aqueduct, which still conveys the water to the town. It is first seen to the left of the high road from San Ildefonso;

but inspires no idea of grandeur till we reach the centre of Segovia: There it stretches across a steep valley; at the bottom, and along the side of which, part of the town is built, and consists of two rows of arches, one above the other, amounting in all to one hundred and seventy-five in number. The style of these arches is the same as that of the bridge of Merida, and it appears astonishing how such a mass of stones should hang together as it were in the same manner, for so many centuries. The greatness of this immense pile is contrasted by the narrow streets and dark houses which cluster round the bases of the arches. To deserve such a work, Segovia must have been a situation of great importance in the eyes of the Romans. It is still a large town, considering the general size of towns in the interior of Spain, and was doubtless placed here on account of the strong situation of the castle, which must have been nearly impregnable before the use of artillery. In modern times its chief support is the trade in wool. The small stream which rises in the Guadarrama mountains, and runs in the bottom of the valley past the town, possesses the property of cleansing water better than any other water in Spain. Hence the Lavadero, or great washing place, is the most noted in Europe.

Toward the close of this month, September, the seat of government was again removed, and fixed at the Escorial. This great building, it is well known, was erected by Philip the Second, in consequence of a vow made by him, during, or previous to the battle of Pavia, which he gained against the French, greatly by the assistance of his English auxiliaries. It is a quadrangular pile, about thirty miles from Madrid, situated at the south-west base of high hills, which form a branch of the Guadarrama range. Within the same building are contained a palace sufficiently capacious for the accommodation of the whole court of Spain; a large church with a noble dome, a whole convent of the monks of St. Lawrence, with all the appendages to three such institutions, on the grandest scale. The library of the convent is most magnificent, and contains many valuable ancient Spanish and Arabic manuscripts. Let me here observe, that I consider Spain as a rich literary mine in these two branches, which, as yet, has been scarcely opened.

The church is in some measure an appendage to the convent, and wherein the monks perform their religious rites; yet, if placed apart, it would form a striking building, and

might rank in the class of the great churches of Europe. I happened to be present on the day of San Lorenzo, or St. Lawrence, when, of course, all the magnificence of the institution was displayed. The choir, the solemn organ, the multitude of priests and monks, of whom I counted upward of two hundred, with lighted tapers in their hands; the marble pillars, the painted roofs all, in short, conspired to form a great whole, compared with which every religious ceremony I had yet seen was but of little interest. I know not what traveller has given it as his opinion, that the building was very splendid in its interior decorations, but exceedingly heavy as a whole. I never yet have seen a building so simple without the least heaviness. The stone also of which it is built, and which is brought from the neighbouring mountains, preserves its freshness in such a manner that, although upward of two hundred and ten years have elapsed since the erection of the convent, it appears as if newly built. Although the ground plan of the whole in some measure resembles the form of a gridiron, on which St. Lawrence is said to have been roasted to death; this fanatic idea would never occur to any person at the sight of it, if not previously informed that such was the plan, and even then very imperfectly. Two huge stone gridirons are also carved on the great front near the principal entrance, and the same ornament is repeated in several instances in the interior. This small absurdity, however, is lost in the greatness of the whole. The roof of the choir is painted full of figures singing and playing on a thousand different instruments, and from below they almost appear to form one body with the monks occupied in the musical part of the ceremony. On a nearer approach, however, it is seen that the whole is in a very bad taste, and the monstrous and impious absurdity of daring to sketch a figure of the Supreme Being is exhibited here, and in several other parts of the church. This is an example of human folly, which puts me out of all patience whenever I see it, although Raphael himself has fallen into it. I must own that I was in some measure prepared to think well of the religious ceremonies of the Escorial.

TOLEDO.

Whilst at the Escorial, I received information which might be reckoned conclusive as to the objects of my journey, and I accordingly returned to Madrid. A few leisure days, however, intervening before the arrival of the post,

I employed them in a visit to Toledo. For the purpose of conveying myself thither, I made use of a vehicle so often to be seen on the roads of Spain. This was a heavy calèche, drawn by one mule, which continued all the way from Madrid to Toledo, and from Toledo back again to Madrid, with a happy uniformity of pace, notwithstanding the heavy showers of blows which at regular intervals descended upon its crupper. This was so tedious that I went on foot the greater part of the way, and even then was frequently obliged to stop till my vehicle came up. In this manner it took twenty-four hours to reach Toledo, allowing three or four for resting at a miserable inn upon the road.

This ancient city stands upon a conical hill, within an angle of the Tagus, about fifty miles to the south-west of Madrid. The road for almost the whole of this distance is through an open country, which in many tracts exhibits signs of great fertility, although there are only four or five villages between the two cities. Of these Getafe, Illescas and Cavanas are of some note. As we approach Illescas we have a view of a singular steep and detached mountain with a flat summit, at some distance to the left of the highway. Near Toledo the road constantly descends till we approach the town, which we enter under old gateways, and between ancient statues of saints and kings. Toledo bears all the marks of fallen greatness. It is built, as has been already mentioned, upon a steep conical hill, round the base of which the Tagus winds in such a manner as to form it into a kind of small peninsula, across the isthmus, or neck of which, are still the remains of lofty walls. In ancient times its situation and fortifications must have rendered it almost impregnable. The Alcazar, or castle, is a large plain building of stone, but containing little worthy of notice. Near it, however, and on the outside of several of the gates are statues of the old Goths, Spanish kings, who for some centuries made Toledo the metropolis of their empire. On the pedestals are engraven inscriptions which mark their heroic exploits against the Moors, and generally terminate with an account of the pious monarch, after all his conquests, having laid aside his royal robes to become a monk, and of course a saint. But the chief ornament of Toledo is the cathedral, which is still the metropolitan church of Madrid, and consequently of the whole empire. Yet I must confess I was somewhat disappointed in my ideas of this building, so often described, and so highly celebrated. The greater part of it is certainly very

ancient; but about three hundred years ago it was repaired, and what an inscription on the walls term beautified and partly rebuilt. This rebuilding and beautifying has been executed by some one ignorant of the principles and true beauties of the gothic architecture, so that it now exhibits, to my eyes at least, a jumble of styles, which render it inferior to Westminster abbey, or the cathedral at York. The roof, however, of the Toledan cathedral is simple and elegant; but they totally deprive the whole of its ancient and venerable appearance by daubing all the interior over with white-wash, besides loading the walls with statues, shrines, relics, paintings, and gilded crucifixes. These, had they been employed in moderation and with judgment, might have been real ornaments; but they are in such profusion as greatly to diminish the simple and majestic effect which such a building is well calculated to produce. Besides the cathedral, there are several other ancient churches, particularly that of San Juan de los Reyes, or St. John of the Kings, a beautiful smaller gothic church, not chargeable with the same defects as the cathedral.

Our author now recommences his itinerary, receding his returning to Madrid, and thence to Cadix and Algeciras. Those who feel interested in such descriptive particulars, we would recommend to purchase the volumes. In our present limits we can do little more than trace the progress of Mr. S. and extract what is by far the most important portion of his work, the accounts of the principal places, and the manners and customs of the people. The only point worthy of our notice in the above itinerary is an advice to ride post, as the best mode of travelling. Mr. Semple mentions the following curious incidents which occurred on his journey.

After leaving Andujar we enter upon a plain, which which extends to a great distance before us; and is bounded on the left by the Gundalquiver, and the small hills which rise from its opposite bank. As the river, however, is seldom visible till we approach Aldea del Rio, or the village on the river, a distance of sixteen miles, although marked only three and a half leagues, this ride is barren and uninteresting; the pleasantest ride being when we look back upon Andujar and the distant mountains of the Sierra Morena. From Aldea del Rio to el Carpio, another long post of three and a half leagues, the country is more diversified with hill and dale, but still wanting in cultivation. About two leagues from Aldea del Rio, as we were

ascending a small hill, I beheld two men with long muskets, running as if to reach the summit before us. My guide called out that they were robbers, which appearing to me very probable, I prepared for their reception; and suffered him to advance about fifty yards in front. By this means I thought it not likely that the robbers would fall upon the guide, seeing that I was behind well mounted, armed and prepared, in case of need, to attack them. Had we been close together, so, that there might have been a chance of hitting us both, they would certainly have fired. As it was they halted with the utmost composure, and leaned upon their long muskets while I passed. I held my right hand upon my pistol in the holster, and looked upon them sternly. My guide was already so far ahead with the baggage, that it would have been needless to attack me. Their looks were wild and savage; their dress was composed chiefly of sheep skins, and besides their muskets and long knives, their girdles were stuck full of pistols. These were the only robbers I saw in Spain; and should any traveller find himself in similar circumstances, I recommend the plan which I adopted, and which I had previously determined to pursue. After this adventure I reached the post-house, which lies away from the town to the right; wet to the skin; and the night having come on dark and uncomfortable, with incessant rain, I determined to stop. The *posada* was nearly full of company of various kinds. I easily found a room; but a chair, a table, and a lamp, were luxuries which well deserved waiting for. At length my guardian angel at all Spanish inns, appeared to me in its usual shape of an old woman with a lamp in her hand. This she hung against the wall, without any fear of blackening it, where after it had glimmered for about an hour, I was further provided with a wicker bottomed chair, a plank upon two cross sticks called a table, a straw mattress and a blanket. To my still greater satisfaction, my old woman brought me a soup plate, filled with pieces of meat and broken bones, stewed with bad oil and garlic, followed by a salad, a loaf of brown bread, and some wine not very sour. Thus sumptuously treated, it was certainly my own fault if I did not make a good supper; but thanks to a ride of thirty miles, I could have put up with coarser fare. After supper while sitting smoking a solitary cigar, two or three Spanish ladies and an officer entered my apartment, with the little ceremony which most nations except

the English use in entering each other's bed rooms. These ladies informed me, that as they slept in the next apartment, into which there was a door from mine, and had heard there was a stranger so near, they could not have slept without assuring themselves that the door was perfectly secure. For these apprehensions, after slightly examining the door, they begged me to excuse them, and having spent a great deal more time in looking at my pistols, saddle, and portmanteau, and asking numerous questions, their gentle bosoms were freed from all alarm on my account, and courteously wishing me good night, they retired. This may serve as an instance of the freedom of Spanish manners.

On reaching the environs of Cadiz, our author proceeded from el Puerto, on one side of the harbour, to the city on the other side. On the 29th, I found several boats preparing to pass over from el Puerto to Cadiz, and accordingly placed myself in one of them with my saddle and portmanteau. I had not been long there before a number of sailors, some with small baggies, others with nothing on them but a pair of trousers and a shirt, and others with their heads and arms bound up, came leaping one after another into the boat until it was quite full, and we put off. They were French sailors, whose vessel after escaping had been ship-wrecked on the coast, and had seven hundred men who composed the crew on the morning of the battle only ninety-four, by their own account, had ever reached the land. Soon after leaving the little creek on which el Puerto de Santa Maria is situated, we open the whole bay, and some of the terrible effects of the late battle became visible. On the north-west side, between el Puerto and Rota, lay a large Spanish ship, the San Rafael, 74, broadside upon the rocks, bilged, and the waves breaking over her. At the bottom of the bay was a large French ship, the name which I have forgotten, aground, but upright. In the centre towards Cadiz lay a group of battered vessels, five or six in number, some with cannon shot; some with two lower masts standing, some with only one and a piece of a bowsprit, and one with but a single stump remaining from stem to stern. "This," said the French sailors, "was the ship of the brave Magon, and on board of which he was killed. A little before he died, he called for one of his surviving officers, and pressing his hand, 'adieu, my friend,' said he, and expired." I felt the force of this tribute paid to the memory of a brave man by his

countrymen; but remembering some of his narratives respecting the English, recorded in the pages of the *Monteur*, I could not help thinking, that a better acquaintance with those enemies might have taught him, if his soul was truly generous, to esteem and respect them. As the wind was contrary to our crossing over, the boat was obliged to make several tacks. In one of these we approached so near the shore, that we plainly discerned two dead bodies which the sea had thrown up. Presently one of a number of men on horseback, who for this sole purpose patrolled the beach, came up, and having observed the bodies, made a signal to others on foot among the bushes. Several of them came down and immediately began to dig a hole in the sand, into which they dragged the dead. Such is a faint account of the scenes to be observed in the bay of Cadiz eight days after the battle.

In approaching Cadiz by water, the view is grand and imposing. Its lofty ramparts of stone, surmounted by houses and the spires of churches seem to rise out of the sea, as in fact they may be said to do; the town being built on the end of a long sandy island, running to the south-east, and communicating with the main land by means of a bridge. Within this island, which greatly resembles an isthmus, and between it and the main land, is deep water, which forms the harbour, towards the head of which is the *Caracas* or Arsenal where the powder and naval stores are kept. Thus Cadiz is surrounded on all sides by water, except towards the south-east, where it is very strongly fortified; and justifies by its admirable position the discernment of the Phœnicians, by whom it is said to have been founded. The streets are regularly built, well paved, and kept remarkably clean, and the churches richly ornamented. The principal inhabitants however being merchants, and the great support of the place commerce, the war with England, and subsequent blockade of the port had rendered every thing dull, and thrown an air of sadness over the whole town. In time of peace, when its ports are crowded with vessels, and its streets with natives of every country, Cadiz must be a most favourable situation for observing the Spanish character when put into activity, as well as a lively and interesting picture. It would appear that every considerable town in Spain must have its public walk. The ramparts form the Prado of Cadiz, and it is here that the women are said to walk with superior grace, even to those of Madrid: This I imagine arises from many strangers first

SEMPLE.]

landing at Cadiz, and thence proceeding to the capital, where supposing the manners, in this respect, to be the same, a difference will always remain in favour of the first impressions. Let it be observed however, that the Spaniards themselves, from all the provinces, celebrate the graceful manners of the women of Andalusia. However that may be, the walk along the ramparts is delightful, commanding on one side a view of the bay and the opposite shores, with various small towns, villages, and forts, in particular el Puerto and Rota, the latter standing upon the north-west point of the bay. To the south-east the view is only along the isthmus, and the sea-shore terminating at a distant point, whereon stands a light-house; but to the west and south-west the view is unbounded, being as far as the eye can reach over the Atlantic, on which vessels are daily seen at a great distance making for other ports, and generally bound either from or up the Mediterranean. On this part of the ramparts a number of French and Spanish officers assembled every evening, and cast many a wistful look over the ocean. But the view to them was by no means boundless. Nine English ships of war intercepted the horizon, and shewed that at least that number of their fleet was so little disabled as to be able to keep the sea, and still blockade the harbour of Cadiz.

Among the public buildings, the new cathedral church, when finished, will be by far the most conspicuous; but it appears uncertain when that period will arrive; the foundation, I was informed, having been laid nearly twenty years ago. The same causes however operate here as in Lisbon to retard the completion; namely, the funds passing through the hands of the monks or priests. This, with the misfortune occasioned by their late wars with England, sufficiently account for its present unfinished state. Although not yet wholly roofed, the interior is already loaded with columns and pilasters too rich and full of ornament to please a just taste; but the whole serves to display that marked trait in the Spanish character, a readiness to undertake great enterprises, and an impatience to hurry to the conclusion. Hence in several of the niches along the walls of this half-roofed church, which has neither doors nor windows, and where we stumble over heaps of rubbish; we behold the marble statues of saints and angels which have been placed there with a childish eagerness. After all, should it ever be finished according to the plan which it even now displays, it

will be one of the most magnificent modern structures in Spain.

The time that Mr. Semple was at Cadiz, was the period of the ever memorable battle of Trafalgar. He gives some very entertaining and ludicrous anecdotes relative to the bombastic manner in which the French seamen described their feats of valour.

Algeciras, at which our author soon afterwards arrived, is a miserable town, unworthy of notice, except on account of its being a receptacle for the

SPANISH GUN-BOATS.

The fortifications and batteries of Algeciras, says he, in a military point of view, are as contemptible as the town itself; but what renders it chiefly notorious is the shelter it affords to the numerous gun-boats and small privateers which infest the entrance of the Mediterranean, and the consequent great annoyance to the English commerce. These gun-boats are from twenty-five to fifty tons burthen, with two masts, and large lateen sails. They are full of men; and in calm weather can be rowed nearly four miles in an hour. In general they have a single gun in the bows, carrying a ball of thirty-two or thirty-six Spanish pounds; but sometimes they are armed with two long twenty-four pounders, either both forward, or one in the bow and the other astern. In a fresh breeze these boats can do little injury, not only because being strongly and heavily built the weight of their guns buries them under every wave, but even were they not to dip, the sudden rise and fall in such small vessels prevents the taking any just aim. But in calm or light airs they are capable of doing much mischief, every thing being then in their favour. With the assistance of their oars they can go ahead and manœuvre round even a ship of war; and should it be quite calm take whatever station they chuse, without it being in the power of their enemy to prevent them. Their guns being of a great length and calibre, they can place themselves out of the reach of most vessels' stern or bow chasers, whilst they fire along the level surface of the water with as much deliberation, and as unmolested, as if firing at a mark. Add to this, a vessel is a large object, and hardly to be missed by their gunners, however unskillful; whilst they, on the contrary, present only the bow of a boat low in the water, and exceedingly difficult to hit. Such are their advantages in calms or light airs; and it is therefore not to be wondered at that they

capture many vessels in a place subject to such capricious currents, and sudden shifts of wind as the straits of Gibraltar. The long wars with England have taught the Spaniards the advantages and disadvantages of these floating one-gun batteries. When there is a breeze of wind they lie quiet under the heights of Algeciras, while the English frigates cruize backwards and forwards constantly in view. But in the calm mornings which commonly succeed the heavy easterly gales, they may be seen rowing out along the shores of the bay in fleets. They are then full of courage, and vow nothing less than the total destruction of their enemies. When arrived in the gut perhaps they behold an English vessel, which will not obey the helm, carried hither and thither by the violent eddies from both shores. The lust of plunder stimulates them to venture out, in which case the ship, if a merchantman, has little chance of escape. Should they succeed in the capture, all the boats immediately ply their oars, and if the calm continues, soon tow their prize under the batteries of Algeciras. Thus, if fortunate, they gain a vessel worth perhaps twenty thousand pounds or more; if taken, they lose a boat and one gun, and the prisoners are sent over again from Gibraltar in a few days. Such is the case in calms; but with an ordinary breeze, and in deep water, a single English frigate is sufficient to put to flight all the gun-boats from Cadiz to the bay of Gibraltar.

When at Algeciras, I saw this sufficiently demonstrated. Signals were made for an English convoy having entered the gut. The weather was nearly calm; and all the boats got under weigh, full of men, and with infinite bustle and noise. Nothing else was expected than the capture of the whole convoy; but unfortunately for them, a small breeze sprang up soon afterwards, and a frigate and a brig of war were seen standing out of Gibraltar, right across the bay. I was already out of the town, and near the Martello tower, at the mouth of the small bay already mentioned, when the gun-boats had begun to collect together on the approach of the frigate. The Spaniards were the first to fire, both from their boats and their batteries on the opposite side of the bay, while the frigate stood on without returning a single shot, until so near that grape could reach them. Then she opened her ports, luffing up in the wind and bearing away alternately, so as to bring both her broadsides into action, and poured such a shower of round and grape shot that not only the boats, but the sea, all round them, seemed to be

covered. The Spaniards did not long withstand this terrible hail. They altered their course, and pulled with all their might for Algeciras, whilst the shot of the frigate continued to whistle over their heads, and strike the rocks on shore with a great noise, shattering portions of them into large splinters. The *bag-neve* fired a shot, but stood as close as possible to the shore, in order to cut off the retreat of any boat that might drop behind. With the loss of some men killed and wounded, and one boat sunk, the rest got back, and the English convoy passed in perfect safety.

This issue of an engagement between a single frigate and all the gun-boats of Algeciras, along their own shores, sufficiently shewed what would have been their fate in the middle of the bay or the open sea. Some would have been run down, others sunk, and others taken, with the loss of half their crews, from the fire of the lofty decks of the frigate. It is more than probable that not one would have escaped to tell the story, unless indeed their repeated and fervent prayers to Saint Antonio had induced his interposition, in the shape of a sudden calm, in their behalf. I had thus ocular demonstration of the total inutility of all such paltry craft, however strongly constructed, and however numerous, when put in competition with large ships of war, properly manœuvred. I confess that I needed such proof to overcome the prejudices which I had conceived in my own mind in favour of gun boats.

Some remarks succeed on the bay of Gibraltar, but they are too prolix for our purpose.

Mr. Semple having completed the object of his journey in Spain, left Algeciras for Leghorn on the 18th December, on board an American vessel. He reached that port after a dangerous passage of fifteen days, and after the usual performance of quarantine, he entered the city of Leghorn, which he thus describes:

LEGHORN

Is neatly and regularly built; the principal streets intersect it from gate to gate; and the houses standing on the canal, which is cut from the Arno, and communicates with Pisa, have generally a handsome appearance. It is regularly fortified with lofty bastions of brick; and surrounded by a broad ditch, which is filled from the sea. The churches and public buildings contain little that is striking, either in the interior or exterior; but to mercantile men the bustle of its port, and its extended commerce, might supply this

defect. The oppression of France, however, cramps this commerce, which would otherwise soon render Leghorn one of the most flourishing towns in Italy. An English vessel dares not appear in the port without the risk of being detained by the vilest French agent that may chance to be on the spot; and the decree of a French Consul, however iniquitous and unjust, would be sufficient for the condemnation of any vessel. Add to this, in a former visit to the town, the French generals stripped all the ramparts and batteries of the beautiful brass cannons, with which they were mounted, and sold them at public auctions, with the express stipulation that they should be sawed into two or three pieces. To complete the destruction of the independence of Leghorn, the fortification on one side was partly dismantled, and the ground sold to the Jews for a fixed sum, at which rate they were compelled to become the purchasers. As extensive suburbs are also constructing in that direction, Leghorn may be considered as no longer defensible on the land side.

The streets are level, and paved with broad flag stones, which has a neat and clean effect, although no distinction is made at the sides for foot passengers. Until, however, he becomes accustomed to it, an Englishman, looking merely at the pavement, is apt constantly to imagine himself in some bye court. The houses are lofty; and generally inhabited in flats or floors, as was formerly, and is still, in a great degree, the custom in the two principal towns of Scotland. This is so much the fashion in Leghorn, that twelve, fourteen, and even more rooms upon a floor, often constitute the residence of an individual. As the visitor must necessarily pass through many of these apartments, their furniture and appearance is a source of much private magnificence and ostentation.

The theatre which I saw was tolerably splendid; but most of the boxes being private property, and only illuminated according to the caprice of the possessors, it has a dull and somewhat gloomy appearance, unless on particular occasions, when all, or the greater part of them are lighted up. This, however, I understood to be the case throughout Italy; which, added to the inattention of the genteeler audience, took away much of the interest of the scene. In England an audience appears all of one piece. One smile, one burst of laughter, one sorrow, pervades the whole, and this very nationality or unity of spirit is, perhaps, to a feeling mind, one of the greatest pleasures of the

theatre. But in Italy, where the party in one box is engaged in cards, in another in taking coffee, and in a third in loud and vehement conversation, the mind is distracted between the actors on the stage and those around us, and the drama loses half of its reality, and more than half of its charms.

On the first Sunday after my landing, whilst wandering on the outside of the ~~monparts~~, I stumbled upon the English burying-ground, surrounded by an iron railing, and shut by a gate. A quarter of a dollar procured me admission; when it appeared to me by far the noblest cemetery I had ever seen; the monuments being all of marble, and executed in a taste greatly superior to what is commonly found any where in England. Here lie the remains of Tobias Smollett; and I felt a melancholy pleasure at beholding in Italy the grave of a man by whose writings I had been so often charmed, and to whose memory I had already seen an obelisk erected on the banks of the Leven. Out of the boundaries of the burying-ground I heard nothing but Tuscan or Italian. But here the marble monuments spake to me in plain English, and told me that many of my countrymen, who had once been illustrious in the arts or arms, were now laid under the foreign turf on which I trod. Besides the pillar to the memory of Smollett, and many others worthy of attention, I particularly paused on the tomb-stone of a mother, who died in bringing into the world two infants, who are buried with her in the same grave. The figure of the mother recumbent, and of the two babes, appeared to me beautiful and affecting, although somewhat impaired by time, and exposure to the open air. In a word, my meditations on this occasion were not unsuited to the place, the day, and my own isolated situation. I could not help thinking that it might yet be my own destiny to fall in a foreign land; and I secretly prayed to Heaven that my burying place at least might not be so obscure, but that some wandering Englishman should be there to sigh over my grave.

ACCOUNT OF A CARNIVAL.

Monday, 3d Feb.—This day the carnival began; and on the same day at Rome, Naples, and generally throughout Italy. The streets, especially in the afternoon, were filled with masks, which were in general absurd enough, and some of them highly indelicate; but these last seemed to give the most universal satisfaction. Harlequines and colum-

bines, punchinellos, men straddling along in women's cloaths, and women mincing their steps, dressed like husbands, and armed with sabres, people with grotesque faces, carrying umbrellas when it did not rain, together with a long train of similar absurdities; such are the delights of a carnival. Among the rest of the characters, I observed one who wore no masks. They were beggars, clothed in rags, and who, with emaciated countenances and plaintive tones, besought the smallest charity for the love of God. Misery needs no disguise; on the contrary, it is a mask often worn; but I could not help thinking that the introduction of real misery spoiled the unity of the scene. Never mind: on this day every body rejoices; and Rome and Naples are still gay^{er} than Leghorn.

Our author having passed a week at Leghorn, set off for Rome, and was taken by a *vetterino*, or driver of a coach, with his baggage, the whole way, for sixteen dollars, including the charge for supplying him with two good meals a day on the way.

The road between Leghorn and Pisa, observes our author, a distance of 14 or 15 miles, is for the most part level and good, and the country on both sides tolerably cultivated. About ten miles from Leghorn we passed the church and village of San Pietro in grado, ^{was} ~~was~~ ^{to the} ~~on~~ ^{right} ~~of~~ ^{of} a small lake. The whole country round appears to have been a marsh, at no very remote period; and is still swampy in many parts. To my great mortification, our road turned off to the right just before reaching Pisa; and I was thus disappointed of a sight of that ancient city. Soon afterwards night drew on, and intercepted all view of the surrounding country; but we found, from the violent jolting of the carriage, that the road was most rugged. About eight o'clock we arrived at Fornacesti; a town situated on the small river Era, at its junction with the Arno. Here I had the first specimen of an Italian inn, which certainly suffered nothing when compared with those of Spain. On the contrary, after the miserable *posadas* of that country, I was pleased to see some appearance of neatness, some attempts at cleanliness, and a little attention on the part of the servants. Our supper, however, was by no means sumptuous. The principal dish was *macaroni* boiled, plain, and sprinkled with cheese; and this I afterwards found to be a ~~very~~ ^{as} universal throughout Italy as the *puchero* in Spain. Our whole repast was enlivened by several flasks of Tuscan wine, of a good quality. These flasks have long narrow

necks; and a little oil is poured on the top, instead of corks. The air is thereby effectually excluded from the wine; but the flask, of course, must always be kept upright, until the time of being used, when the oil is imbibed, by means of a little cotton wool. After the dismal stories which I had heard of Italian inns, I was also agreeably disappointed in my bed, which appeared to me tolerable. My previous probation in Spain was no doubt the cause of my being so easily pleased; and hence they who have travelled in Italy only, may judge of the general accommodations in the former country.

There is no occurrence worth relating in our Analysis till the author's arrival at Rome, if we except the following

COMPARISON BETWEEN LEGHORN AND SIENNA.

Nothing can be more different than Leghorn and Sienna. The former owes its greatness entirely to commerce and its happy situations for trading with Spain, France, and Italy. Placed upon a flat, and surrounded by a marshy country, by mountains at a small distance, or by the sea, it can only exist by maritime commerce. But Sienna inland, without even the semblance of a river, and placed upon high ground, possesses different claims to our notice. We are struck by its romantic situation upon the summit, and along the sides of several steep hills, by the petty bustle of its inland commerce, which reminds the Spanish traveller of Manzanares, and by the symptoms of its departed grandeur, which recal to him the ruined towers and empty cathedrals of Toledo. Connected with the hill on which the principal part of the town stands, is an abrupt rock, nearly surrounded by a deep valley, except where a kind of isthmus joins it to the town. This in its general character so closely resembles the rock of Edinburgh Castle, and that of the Alcazar of Segovia, that there can be little doubt of their having been produced by similar causes in the former great operations of nature. The walks round the ramparts of this castle are kept in good order, and the views, from most situations, are charming. We stand with a kind of pleasing dread on the edges of the parapet, and behold beneath us a deep valley, forming a natural fosse at the base of the solid rock, with which the walls seem to be in one piece. The distant country is beautifully varied with lofty hills and long vales, but the whole appears well cultivated, though intermixed with woods. Even the valley beneath us is full of gardens; a valley which the Italian philosophers uniformly assert to

every appearance of having been once the crater of a tremendous volcano.

The gothic cathedral of Sienna, although in a very bad state, is still venerable from its antiquity, loftiness, and expense.

The principal front is most curiously adorned, or rather loaded with carved work, and appears to be cased over with marble. In the interior, however, many of the decorations are beautiful, and in the purest taste. Among other curiosities is shewn a picture of the Holy Virgin painted by St. Luke, and of course an undoubted likeness.

I could not do less than make my obeisance before the work of so great a master, and so great an original, and my young Italian friend let go my arm to cross her and mutter a pious prayer. After wandering for an hour through this venerable pile, which I did not leave without regret, I resumed my survey of the town. In the afternoon, however, the streets became almost impassable. A carnival had begun at Sienna also, and I beheld a repetition of the same follies or amusements, which I had already seen at Leghorn. In any other times, perhaps these might at least not disgust; but in the present state of Italy, what thinking mind can behold; without astonishment, a people thus surrendering themselves to the most childish diversions; and ~~and~~ we wonder that the French so easily overrun this country.

Whatever this may be, the manners of the Siennese are remarkably polite and engaging. The Italian here spoken of, and pronounced in so clear and musical a manner, I have never, in any town, or in any country, before or since, heard a language which sounded so pleasing to the ear of a stranger. The Greek language alone is superior in music and expression, but it is only by scattered fragments that we hear that spoken as it ought to be; and by a whole town or district, as is the case with the Italian of Sienna.

ROME, ITS BUILDINGS, &c.

Who would visit Rome, says Mr. Semple, to stay there even a few days, and to pass it over in silence, would be considered as idle; yet what can the short residence of a week or two entitle me to say upon so vast a subject, and which has already afforded materials for so many volumes? I connect my observations without useless digression with the sole object of the present chapter.

It was dark when we arrived at the albergo or inn,

had no opportunity of examining its situation. In the morning, when I retired to my chamber, all being still, I heard the rushing of water, and hastily opening my window, observed that the Tyber ran close under it. I could not but congratulate myself at thus hanging over this immortal river, to which so great a proportion of the world are paid tribute, and the sight of which awoke so many recollections on the past. Upon the banks of this river were reared the conquerors of one half the world. This is the very stream into which Horatius Cocles armed and wound-plunged, after defending the bridge against the troops of Porsenna; over which Clelia swam, leading the way for the escape of her companions the virgin hostages; into which, in times of dreadful famine, many of the starving Romans, threw themselves, in open day, with their heads covered, and in death-like silence. Being swollen by the rains, it now rushed past with great rapidity, and the rocks were dimly reflected from its turbid stream.

Like every stranger who comes to Rome, I visited St. Peter's; or rather once every day, and often twice, I went to admire that wonderful structure. I must confess the first sight disappointed my expectations, but a little examination fully equalled them, and what was strengthened by every subsequent visit. The circular arcade which forms the peristyle, supported on double rows of pillars; the two beautiful fountains in the court, which throw up perpetually an astonishing quantity of water; the obelisk of ancient Egyptian granite, in the centre, and the simple, but majestic front, combine to produce a whole which is probably nowhere equalled, and certainly not excelled. Within, the splendour and richness of the marble columns, the statues, the paintings, the mosaics, the shrines, the altars, strike us with astonishment; yet even these cannot prevent us from noticing the exact proportions of the whole, where, as in the exterior, nothing intrudes beyond its proper bounds, but all combines to form one great design.

Right under the centre of the dome, and sunk below the pavement, is a kind of magnificent vault, constructed of the best marble, and ornamented with precious stones, lapis lazuli, jewels, and gold. Here rests, or is said to rest, the body of the Great Apostle; gold or silver lamps are kept continually burning round the tomb; and the pious votaries throw themselves on their knees as they approach the marble balustrade which surrounds a spot so sacred. A superb canopy, supported on four rich waved pillars of bronze,

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covers the vault, and although upwards of one hundred and thirty feet high, it is so lost in the greatness of every object round us, that we can with difficulty conceive it to be half of that height. Yet there is one object in St. Peter's which is little either in itself or through the use made of it. This is a bronze statue of the Apostle, to the right of the aisle, sitting and holding the key of Heaven in his hand. One foot projects beyond the pedestal; and no good Catholic enters or leaves the church without kissing it. Some repeat this ceremony three or four times; some stroke it down with their hands; as if it was alive; whilst others stoop and rub their heads backward and forward against the sole of the sandal. In any other situation I might have smiled; but the grandeur of the place prevented all intrusion of lighter thoughts; and I could only pity this striking instance of the degradation of the human character. There must certainly be a pleasure in superstition, otherwise the world could not be so overrun with it. To by far the greatest proportion of mankind it is a toil to think; and whenever, either in religion or politics, they find one who will take the trouble to think for them, they give themselves up to his guidance, with little enquiry.

But it is not alone within the walls of St. Peter's, or among the lower ranks, that we were to look for traces of gross superstition. Almost every square, and every church, demonstrates that this spirit flows from the higher source of society. Magnificent temples are dedicated to the Virgin Mary, under the title of Equal with God, *Dei-paræ Virgini*. The two beautiful columns of Antonine and Trajan have, as we are informed by Latin inscriptions on their bases, been purified from their ancient stains, and are now consecrated to the true faith. In confirmation of this we behold, with some astonishment, a bronze statue of the apostle, to whom it has anew been dedicated, standing on the top of a pillar carved round with battles and triumphs over the Germans or the Daci. But perhaps the most striking instance is the great obelisk, which stands near the principal gate, where we enter the town from the northward. This obelisk is of a singular block of granite, and covered with hieroglyphics, the meaning of which is now lost. It was brought from Egypt by Julius Cæsar; and by him purified and consecrated to the sun, during the time of his being high priest, appears by an inscription still plainly legible. When these times had passed away, the Roman pontiff of a new religion again purified it from all its past impieties; and

has for ever unchangeably consecrated it to another deity. The traveller pauses and considers with profound attention this singular and enormous tablet of stone, on which are recorded the superstitions of three successive periods of human history, and at wide intervals from each other; the idolatrous worship of Egypt, the sacrifices of Rome, and the corruptions of the pure doctrines of christianity. I must confess it appeared to me not merely an Egyptian obelisk, or a Roman trophy, but a monument of the human race, which, if we consider its antiquity, its history, and its inscriptions, is perhaps unique on the face of the globe.

During my stay in Rome I twice ascended the tower of the capital, and indulged in the reflections which the views from its summit naturally excite. Hence we have a clear view of all the seven hills of the city; the remains of the amphitheatre of Vespasian; and of the triumphal arches, the pillars, the temples, and the tombs of ancient Rome. No where can a spot be chosen more calculated to awaken the most profound reflections; which, however, will vary according to the opinion of the beholder. "View well these monuments of past ages," says the Stoic, "behold how fleeting is human grandeur; and remember that virtue alone is permanent," "View well these monuments of past ages," says the Epicurean, "which like ourselves are fast hastening to decay." "Let us then consider, that if life be so frail, if youth be so transitory, we should well enjoy the present hour, and lose no part of so perishable an existence." Perhaps in my future progress I may have occasion to note the general effect which these views produced upon myself. Meantime I leave to others the task of enlarging the numerous lists of pictures, statues, medals, and vases, which this city contains; the Tyber, the capitol, the Tarpeian rock, and the most ancient monuments erected by the Romans, were the first objects of my curiosity. At the head of the second may be placed the church of St. Peter, together with several other religious edifices, the public fountains, and the palaces. Having gratified my curiosity on these heads, I was fearful of entering too deeply into the examination of paintings and statues, to which I was aware there would be no end. Yet how many master-pieces did I not behold in my hasty survey! so many as to render Rome still the most attractive city in the world to a student and lover of the arts.

The palaces and other public buildings at Rome are generally in a pure and correct taste; the inhabitants have a

dignified air and walk; and the women are certainly the handsomest I have seen in Italy. Here, as at Leghorn and Sienna, the carnival was maintained with all its liveliness, and a splendour greatly superior to what I had yet beheld. The principal street was thronged with fine carriages; and the ladies carried pouches full of white sugar plums, which they threw by handfuls at those of the passengers whom they thought proper most to distinguish. So great is the quantity of these carraways or sugar plums thus thrown about in the principal streets that the scavengers every morning sweep them into heaps, like hail, and shovel them into their carts.

On the 22d of February our author proceeded in a *veterino*, to Naples: such is the detestation which the Italians have for the French, that the latter are obliged to travel in numerous parties. Mr. Semplé joined a caravan of this sort, and after experiencing most miserable accommodation, he reached Naples on the third day.

APPEARANCE OF NAPLES.

The first appearance of Naples, says Mr. S. is imposing from its extent, the loftiness of the houses, and the number of public buildings, which we pass soon after entering the gates. It lies principally between the edge of the bay, and a long high ridge, on the summit of which stands the castle of St. Elmo, which, before the introduction of artillery, must have been nearly impregnable. The ditch round it is deep, broad, and cut in the solid volcanic rock, and from it we have a charming view of the town and harbour beneath, Mount Vesuvius, and the whole sweep of the bay of Naples. One principal street, named the street of Toledo, traverses the city almost through the whole of its extent, and in a direction nearly parallel to that of the hill, at the foot of which it stands. As in Leghorn, and most of the towns through which we have passed in Italy, this principal street is paved with large broad flags of lava, without any distinction for foot passengers. Nothing can exceed the liveliness and bustle of this street, which from day-break, till some time after sun set, is constantly thronged with passengers, carriages, soldiers, *lazzaroni* plying for hire, swarms of beggars, and rows of stalls, where bread, fruits, meats ready dressed, and iced water are sold. The carriages drive with great rapidity, and appear to cleave the immense crowd, which quickly closes again, like the waves on the track of a vessel. At the end of the street of Toledo

is an open square, one side of which is formed by the royal palace, which is in a purer state of architecture than most of the other public buildings: For this is one respect in which Naples is greatly inferior to Rome. In the latter city, the churches, the palaces, the columns, the fountains, the statues, nay even the common ornaments of houses are generally in a pure and strict style. In Naples on the contrary, the first glance at the public buildings announces a vitiated taste, and although we may afterwards find much to admire, in detail I scarcely saw there a single structure which did not bear the marks of decay, or the corruption of genius.

This square, during the time of my residence at Naples, was on all accounts the most interesting spot to which the stranger could resort. Besides the palace, it is likewise ornamented with a colossal marble, Terminus of Jupiter, dug up several years ago, and placed here by order of the king. The effect of such a giant statue on one side of the public square is striking, and it was now rendered still more so by the great number of French officers and soldiers constantly walking up and down beneath it. Joseph Buonaparte having taken up his residence in the palace, it was of course, at once, the headquarters of the army, and the centre of the civil and financial operations. A guard of fifty men stood constantly before the front; and on each side of the arched entry, two brass four-pounders, loaded with grape, and with matches burning night and day, evinced the affection, or, at least, secured the obedience of the Neapolitans to their new sovereign. In the day time, this mixture of armed men, loaded cannon, and smoking matches, in the midst of a crowded city, had something of the appearance of ferocity, and at night, in passing the square, the ear was often struck with the repeated challenges of the centinels, whilst, by the light of the stars, it was easy to observe whole companies of soldiers stretched out, and slumbering near piles of arms.

Whatever might be the feelings of the Neapolitans, at this period, they manifested no outward discontent, but gave vent to their murmurs and vows of revenge in secret. The populace, ever urged by the wants, and allured by the amusements of the day, applied for employment to a Frenchman, as they would have done to any other foreigner, and frequented with their usual eagerness, the theatres of puppets, the jugglers, the tellers of stories on the Mole, and the exhibitions of arlequino and punchinello. But the middling

and better classes were more reserved, the places of public amusements ceased to be thronged, and the great theatre Prince Carlos, one of the largest and most magnificent in Europe, appeared every night like an empty prison, for want of illumination and company. Forty or fifty French officers formed the greater part of the audience, and they were among the foremost to lament the want of that society which constitutes the chief pleasure of public amusements.

In this state of things the environs of Naples would have claimed attention, had they even been far less deserving of it in themselves. On the one hand the tomb of Virgil, the grotto of Pausilippo, a passage of eight hundred yards in length, cut through a mountain, and beyond it the country approaching to Pozzuoli and Baia, abounding in natural wonders, hot springs, sulphureous and mephitic vapours issuing in particular spots from the earth, mountains of lava and craters of extinguished volcanos. The tomb of Virgil so called, is nothing but the remains of a round tower, on a hill to the left hand, just above the entrance of the grotto. No inscription on the tomb itself, decides the truth of its having been erected in honour of Virgil, and many learned antiquarians greatly doubt its pretensions to that title. At any rate, the view from it of the whole of Naples, is, perhaps, the most interesting of any in the neighbourhood. Several young women, of whom I had made inquiries, and who had followed me to the spot, seeing that I contemplated with profound attention, whatever recalled even the name of so great a poet, told me, that not far off was the tomb of an English Milord. They led me to it, when I found it to be the grave of an English child, buried at the foot of a young fig-tree. The name, I think, was William Benfield, engraved on a small head-stone, and the inscription told me, in my native language, that he had died under the age of three years. I beheld with a kind of melancholy pleasure this grave of my young countryman, so far from home, and so near the spot said to contain the dust of Virgil.

Such are a few of the objects to the right of the town, looking outwards to the bay. On the left, the principal object is Mount Vesuvius, towering to the height of more than three thousand feet, with its conical summit, and its crater emitting a white smoke from numerous crevices. Leaving this mountain on the left, and passing over its base, consisting of torrents of lava, which have flowed from it at far distant periods, we arrive at Portici, where is kept the museum

which once contained a complete assortment of all the antiquities dug up at Herculaneum, Pompeii, and Stabia. Portici is about five miles from Naples, and is chiefly built upon the lava, beneath which Herculaneum is buried. Continuing along the same road eight miles farther we reach Pompeii, where the ashes and volcanic mud thrown out A. D. —79, by falling on the houses, have formed ridges of low hills, now covered with trees and vines. Nothing can exceed the interest excited by this view of part of an ancient city, the far greater portion of which is yet buried beneath the present surface of the earth. We walk in the streets, we visit the tombs, we enter the theatres, the temples, the private houses of the ancient Romans. Even the tracks of the carriages deeply worn in the pavement, attract our attention, whilst at the same time we notice with disgust, in some exterior and public quarters, striking proofs of the gross indelicacy of ancient manners. But Pompeii, says Mr. Semple, would well deserve a chapter to itself, and that I have not at present to bestow.

But Vesuvius is the great, the striking, the characteristic object of the vicinity of Naples. It is visible, from the opening of almost every street, it is marked on many of the coins, and its various eruptions are carefully recorded, and accurately depicted. The very idea of a burning mountain in the neighbourhood of an immense city, carries with it an appearance of the wonderful, and recalls the enchantments of the Arabian Nights. The best ascent is from Portici, five miles from Naples, and at that place I readily found a guide to accompany me. The road soon becomes rugged and difficult, over torrents of ancient lava and scorix; but being accustomed to climbing hills, I ascended with a rapidity that astonished my guide. At about one-third of the height we arrived at a small house, kept by a monk, who affords refreshment to persons climbing the mountain, and as the difficulties increase greatly above this spot, it is usual to make a short halt here. He was a venerable looking father of the Franciscan order, received me with a kind greeting, and quickly set before me a loaf of bread, an omelet of eggs, and a bottle of excellent *Lachrymæ Christi*. This wine, which is produced from the vineyards on the slope of the mountain, is sweetish, but pleasant, and highly flavoured. My guide partook with me, and after the repast, the Friar put into my hands a small book, in which he requested me to write my name, and, if I chose, a few short sentences, and I, of course did not neglect this opportunity

